THE EFFECTS OF CULTURAL DIFFERENCES ON CONSUMER PERCEPTIONS OF CELEBRITY ATHLETE ENDORSEMENT: A COMPARATIVE STUDY BETWEEN CANADA AND CHINA

HAO WANG
Bachelor of Management, University of Lethbridge, 2006

A Research Project
Submitted to the School of Graduate Studies
of the University of Lethbridge
in Partial Fulfillment of the
Requirements for the Degree

MASTER OF SCIENCE IN MANAGEMENT

Faculty of Management
University of Lethbridge
LETHBRIDGE, ALBERTA, CANADA

CELEBRITY ATHLETE ENDORSEMENT IN CANADA AND CHINA: DOES CULTURE MATTER?

HAO WANG

Approved:

_____   _____

Supervisor: Tanya Drollinger, PhD   Date

_____   _____

Reader: Wenlong Yuan, PhD   Date

_____   _____

External Examiner: John Peloza, PhD   Date
Simon Fraser University, Burnaby, British Columbia

_____   _____

Chairperson: Helen Kelley, PhD   Date

Abstract

Celebrity endorsement has long been examined in advertising research due to its effectiveness in persuading consumers. Cultural difference is an important topic with regards to celebrity endorsement. This study was a two stage design which investigated: (1) the impact of sports dimension as it relates to cultural meanings in individualistic and collectivistic societies; (2) the impact of cultural differences on the perceptions toward an Asian endorser; and (3) the impact of athlete endorser's characteristics on purchase intention in Canada and China.

Data were collected from 398 subjects via an online survey and revealed three primary findings. First, the sports dimension did not significantly influence the respondents' level of perceptions with regards to identification. Second, Chinese subjects had more favorable perceptions toward the Asian athlete endorser. Third, differences between the Chinese and Canadian samples were found with regards to the celebrity endorsers' characteristics and consumer's purchase intention.

Acknowledgements

I would like to express my deep and sincere gratitude to my supervisor Dr. Tanya Drollinger for her extensive support, encouragement, patience and tolerance. She is a strict, enthusiastic and knowledgeable professor, who pointed me in the right research direction, gave me sound suggestion, and led me all the way to the success in the M.Sc. program.

I would also like to thank my second reader Dr. Wenlong Yuan for his constructive advice and endless help. Whenever I needed some suggestions, he was always available for me given his busy teaching and research schedules.

I have furthermore to thank my external examiner, Dr. John Peloza, for his interest, expertise, and valuable feedback despite his tight schedule.

Acknowledgement should also be extended to my director, Dr Helen Kelley, my coordinator, Tammy Rogness, and my M.Sc. cohort who supported and encouraged me to overcome all kinds of challenges.

Last but not least, I wish to show my special appreciation to my parents for their continuously support both mentally and economically.

Table of Contents

List of Tables

List of Figures

1. Introduction

Using celebrities, especially athletes and entertainers, as endorsers to promote

products is a popular advertising strategy in many countries (Agrawal & Kamakura 1995;

Rangan 1997). They can be used in different ways that might include being a

spokesperson, giving a testimonial, or acting as a character in a TV commercial. Market

practitioners and advertisers believe that using celebrities as endorsers is a valuable

strategy to enhance brand image and purchase intention (Atkin & Block, 1983; Erdogan,

2005; Freiden, 1984; Friedman & Friedman, 1997, 1999; Hovland, Janis, & Kelley, 1953;

Kamins, Brand, Hoeke, & Moe, 1989; Kelman, 1961; MaGuire, 1985; McCracken, 1989;

Pornpitakpan, 2003; Walker, Langmeyer, & Langmeyer, 1992). Celebrity endorsers can

also help cut through advertising clutter to attract the viewer's attention to the

communication and to influence consumer's purchase attitude and behaviour (Agrawal &

Kamakura, 1995; Atkin & Block, 1983; Erdogan, 1999; Gabor, Jeannye, & Wienner,

1987; Friedman & Friedman 1979; Mathur, Mathur, & Rangan, 1997). Overall, past

research has supported the notion that celebrity endorsement is an effective marketing

strategy.

Empirical findings suggest that advertising in general differs significantly among

various cultures (Han & Shavitt, 1994; Toffoli, 1997; Zhang & Gelb, 1996). However,

little research has been conducted with regards to examining the effectiveness and

efficiency of marketing strategies (e.g., identification and source credibility) in a

cross-cultural context. Even fewer studies have been completed regarding the effect of celebrity endorsement across cultures, particularly on professional athletes.

Pornpitakpan's (2003) research explored the culture differences among Americans, Germans, and Singaporeans in terms of the effect of advertisement size and repetition. The findings suggested there are significant differences among these three cultures. Specifically, in terms of the effect of advertisements towards consumer purchase intention, large advertisements with less repetition make for a more effective result for the Americans. However, larger advertisements with moderate repetition result in a more favourable outcome for the Germans. For Singaporeans, large advertisements with high repetition induce a more positive result. Further, Choi, Lee, and Kim (2005) employed a content analysis to investigate television commercials featuring celebrity endorsers from two different cultures / countries (Korea and United States). The findings indicated that prevalent cultural orientations (e.g., individualism vs. collectivism) in the two countries impact celebrity endorsement strategies. For example, American viewers preferred to see celebrities serve as spokespersons in the advertising, compare to most of the Korean viewers who favoured celebrities who acted in roles in the advertisement. Moreover, Yu (2005) conducted a cross-cultural study aimed to investigate the results of employing athlete endorser in an international market. The findings suggested that advertisers should pay more attention to the cultural difference when using sports athlete endorsers globally in order to achieve marketing success.

Another cross-cultural study investigated possible differences between Americans and Japanese on purchase intention after they were exposed to certain types of negative information toward the celebrity spokesperson (Money, Shimp, & Sakano, 2006). The study results revealed that cultural differences had no effect on influencing purchase intention after exposure to negative information toward a celebrity endorser. More surprisingly, both American (individualistic culture) and Japanese (collectivistic culture) respondents viewed endorsed products more positively after receiving self-oriented negative information on celebrity endorsers. In sum, Money et al.'s (2006) findings revealed very few cultural differences with regards to the presence of negative information about celebrity spokespersons. Yoon, Kim, and Kim (1998) explored the generalization of three commonly used source credibility dimensions (expertise, trustworthiness, and attractiveness) between Americans and Koreans. They concluded in their findings that the dimensionality of source credibility was applicable to both cultural dimensions (individualism vs. collectivism).

The results of these cross-cultural studies showed an incongruent conclusion of global advertising strategy for the market practitioners (Han & Shavitt, 1994; Toffoli, 1997; Zhang & Gelb, 1996). Specifically, negative information and dimensionality of source credibility were perceived similarly between cultures (Japan vs. U.S. and Korea vs. U.S.) whereas ad size and repetition and celebrity identity were perceived differently among cultures (U.S., Germany, Singapore, and Korea).

With consideration of the current globalization of businesses, it is critical for us to conduct more cross-cultural studies in order to provide some important insights on how consumers from different cultures perceive and react to various advertising strategies.

Previous research on celebrity endorsement has mainly emphasized the importance of source attractiveness (e.g., Friedman & Friedman, 1979) and source credibility (e.g., Lafferty & Goldsmith 1999; Ohanian, 1991) on the effectiveness of celebrity endorsement. Presently, very little research has concentrated on the influence of identification between the celebrity endorser and the viewer, especially in a cross-cultural context.

Kelman (1961) stated that an identification process occurs when individuals adopt an attitude or behaviour advocated by a person or group who possess similar characteristics to themselves. Burke (1950) also maintained that a fundamental aspect of communication effectiveness was viewer's identification with a fictional character. In the case of celebrity endorsement, the identification process may also have a strong relationship with behavioural obedience such as purchase intention (Bandura, 1986). Prior research (Bandura, 1986; Basil, 1996; Burke, 1950; Kelman, 1961) has suggested identification is another critical element underlying celebrity endorsement. That is, when an individual perceives a high level of identification with a celebrity endorser, this individual might develop a sense of a close relationship with the endorser and he/she will be more likely to

adopt the attitude or behaviour advocated by the celebrity. In sum, a celebrity endorser

may influence a viewer's purchase intention when high levels of identification occur.

Several researchers (Forehand & Deshpande, 1984; Saenz & Aguirre, 1991; Whittler,

1989, 1991) have investigated advertising effects of the spokesperson's race and his / her

relationship with viewer's identification. Findings have shown that advertisements

featuring endorsers of different races influence the viewers' perception and behaviour

due to racial similarity, dissimilarity, and ethnic identification. More specifically,

advertisement viewers may have greater levels of identification when they perceive that

the spokesperson possesses similar characteristics, such as race, to themselves and thus

adopt the behaviour suggested by the spokesperson (Brock, 1965). In today's fast global

and multicultural environment, the use of non-Caucasian actors in advertising is

becoming more common (Taylor & Stern, 1997). Additional understanding of the effects

of an endorsers' race / ethnicity in commercial advertising is necessary as well as other

attributes.

As Pornpitakpan (2003) called for further studies to investigate the relationship

between celebrity characteristics and consumer purchase intention across various cultural

dimensions. That is, celebrity endorsement could be used more appropriately across

cultures and consumer's attitudes and behaviours may be influenced more effectively. In

an ever-competitive world, both academicians and marketing practitioners should pay

more attention to the generalization of premium marketing strategies such as celebrity

endorsement in a cross-cultural perspective. The selection of a celebrity endorser, especially in a global market, is a difficult, complicated, and risky process and needs to have a reliable theoretical framework. Past research has primarily focused on source attractiveness and source credibility models of celebrity endorsement; however, very few studies have tested those models in cross-cultural settings.

This study utilizes the source credibility model to determine if it is useful in understanding important celebrity characteristics in a cross-cultural setting. The source credibility model first appears in social psychology literature and suggests that the importance of delivering a message to the audience depends on both "expertness" and "trustworthiness" attributions of the spokesperson (Hovland, Janis, & Kelly, 1953, p20; Leavitt, 1978). Hovland et al. (1953, p20) defines "expertness" as "the extent to which a communicator is perceived to be a source of valid assertions" and "trustworthiness" as the consumer's confidence on the communicator's credibility. In his model, spokespersons exhibiting expertness and trustworthiness are credible and persuasive. The source attractiveness dimension also has its root in the social psychological research and is an important part of the "source valence" model of McGuire (1985). Baker and Churchill (1977), Kahle and Homer (1985), and McGuire (1985, p.264) define "attractiveness" as both facial and physical. McGuire's attractiveness model (1985, p.264) explains that the respondent's perceptions of a source's "familiarity," "likability," "similarity," and "attractiveness" are very critical to the effectiveness of a communication

message. Over the past few decades, growing support for the source credibility model has

been received through a positive relationship between source credibility and the

endorsers' enhanced persuasiveness (Bannister, 1986; Fireworker & Friedman, 1977;

Friedman & Friedman, 1979; Kamen, Azhari, & Kragh, 1975; Ohanian, 1990, 1991;

Pornpitakpan, 2003). However, the theoretical meaning underlying the success of source

credibility model was not made clear.

The meaning transfer model is a useful theoretical framework when explaining the

effects of credibility, expertness, attractiveness and other characteristics that are

transferred from the spokesperson to the endorsed product or brand (Langmeyer &

Walker, 1991; McCracken, 1989). McCracken (1986) has suggested that advertising is an

effective method of culture meaning transfer through pairing the culturally constituted

world and consumer product together within a specific advertising context. In

McCracken's culture meaning transfer model, a three-staged theoretical framework has

been developed in which a celebrity possesses unique cultural meanings, which are

transferred from the celebrity to the endorsed product or brand, and then, the pairing of

the celebrity and their unique cultural meanings reach the consumers. Professional

athletes often appear as endorsers (Basil, 1996; Mathur, Mathur, & Rangan, 1997)

because advertisers believe they carry a set of positive cultural meanings. For example,

Kobe Bryant, currently a NBA superstar, represents a strong, triumphant, talented, and

successful image. His endorsement of NIKE sneakers over time has come to share the

cultural meanings which Kobe Bryant is known for with the brand. Through the purchasing process, consumers believe that they can adopt the meanings by wearing these NIKE shoes and thus they can perform better in sports activities.

In addition, athletes who are either in team sports or in individual sports may hold different meanings that are attached to a wider constellation of meanings in the endorsement process. Consumers with various cultural backgrounds might identify with athlete spokespersons that are engaged in various sports at different levels. Consumers from individualistic cultures may have higher levels of identification and perceive greater levels of source credibility (attractiveness, trustworthiness, and expertise) with a spokesperson with many individualistic attributes (e.g., independent, highly competitive, etc.) because they recognize the similarity between the spokesperson and themselves. People from individualistic cultures might have higher levels of identification and perceive greater levels of source credibility (attractiveness, trustworthiness, and expertise) toward an athlete who competes in individual sports (e.g., golf player) and who possesses many individualistic attributes. On the other hand, consumers from collectivistic cultures may have higher levels of identification and source credibility (attractiveness, trustworthiness, and expertise) with a spokesperson who competes in team sports (e.g., basketball player) and who has many collectivistic characteristics (e.g., teamwork, cooperation, and interdependence).

When examining celebrity endorsement literature, identification theory, source credibility, and purchase intention are widely discussed (Agrawal & Kamakura, 1995; Atkin & Block, 1983; Basil, 1996; Burke, 1950; Erdogan, 1999; Gabor, Jeannye, & Wienner, 1987; Friedman & Friedman 1979; Kelman, 1961; Mathur, Mathur, & Rangan, 1997; McCracken, 1998, Ohanian, 1991). However, few studies have investigated these issues together, particularly in a cross-cultural research setting. This research initially focuses on the impact of sports dimensions (individual sports and team sports) on the viewers' perceived identification and source credibility: attractiveness, trustworthiness, and expertise between individualistic Canada and collectivistic China (Hofstede, 1984); and then investigates the influence of a perceived athlete endorser's characteristics and identification level on the viewer's purchase intention between the two countries. To have a better understanding of the culture differences source credibility: attractiveness, trustworthiness, and expertise (Hovland et al., 1953; Ohanian, 1990, 1991) and identification scales (Bandura, 1986; Basil, 1996; Burke, 1950; Kelman, 1961) were introduced as the measurement of the effect of culture (individualism vs. collectivism) and sports (team sports and individual sports) differences on consumer's purchase intention.

The three main purposes of this study are: (1) to examine the impact that sports dimensionality (team sports vs. individual sports) of athletic endorsers has on the perceptions of respondents' levels of identification and source credibility (attractiveness,

trustworthiness, and expertise) as it relates to different cultural dimensions (collectivism vs. individualism); (2) to explore the cultural differences between Chinese and Canadian in regards to their perception levels of identification and source credibility (attractiveness, trustworthiness, and expertise) toward an Asian athlete spokesperson; (3) to compare the differences between collectivistic Chinese and individualistic Canadians regarding the impact of athlete endorser's perceived levels of identification and source credibility (attractiveness, trustworthiness, and expertise) on consumers' purchase intention.

2. Review of Literature
2.1 Celebrity Endorsement

Celebrity endorsement is used extensively in advertising. According to Kahle (2004), businesses have been looking to celebrities to endorse their products for more than a century. In the early 1980s, more than 10% of TV commercials employed a celebrity endorsement strategy so as to achieve advertising effectiveness (Sherman, 1985). Nowadays, the market for celebrity endorsements is more competitive than ever. According to recent research statistics (Okonkwo, 2006), the use of celebrity advertisements has doubled in the past decade. Approximately 25% of current advertisements feature celebrities as opposed to only about 12% in 1995. This popular advertising practice has attracted attention from many academicians and marketing practitioners (Erdogan, 2005).

As early as the 1970s Fireworker and Friedman (1977) investigated the effects that celebrity endorsements have on perceptions of products and services. More specifically, the authors explored how endorsements impact attitude change towards a product, expected price of the product, and purchase intention. They used a between subject design to test the relationship between types of endorser (e.g., celebrity endorser, professional expert, typical consumer, company endorser, and no endorser) and gender effects. The results suggested the celebrity endorsers generated more positive attitudes toward the advertisement and higher expected product prices than the other types of endorsers. However, purchase intention was not significantly related to a celebrity

endorsement in their study. Fireworker and Friedman (1977) explained this study's outcome as being due to the endorsement only influencing the cognitive and affective aspect of consumer conduct but not the behavioral aspect.

Lavidge and Steiner (1961) provided some possible explanations for the insignificant relationship between celebrity endorsement and positive purchase intention in Fireworker and Friedman's (1977) study. In their study there are a sequence of stages in advertising influencing the purchase intention process that includes an awareness stage, a knowledge stage, a liking stage, a preference stage, a conviction stage and a purchasing stage. They concluded the endorsement could generate a significant impact on purchase intention only after repeated exposures but not after single exposure to an endorsement.

In addition, Atkin and Block (1983) found that more favorable advertising ratings and more positive product evaluations were a result from celebrity endorsement in alcohol advertising targeting young audiences. Their experiment focused on the different impacts using celebrity endorsement and non-celebrity endorsement on the effects of attitude toward the advertisements, attitude toward the product images, and purchase intention. The findings supported the hypothesis that advertisements employing celebrity endorsers received more favorable responses than the non-celebrity endorsement ads across all participants' age groups. Celebrity endorsers had higher ratings on trustworthiness, competence, and attractiveness than non-celebrity endorsers.

According to Sukhdial, Aiken, and Kahle (2002), each year businesses, especially sports brands, pay millions of dollars to athletes in exchange for their endorsement hoping to connect with the target audience. They maintain that celebrity endorsement is a very useful marketing strategy because consumers often want to associate themselves with celebrities, star athletes in particular. Furthermore, celebrity athletes often receive social admiration by their fans thus marketing practitioners employ sports celebrities to endorse products and services ranging from sports equipment to cosmetic goods in order to build a closer relationship with the fans and ultimately to achieve marketing success. Some researchers suggested that it is critical to study the factors (e.g., the motivation behind fan's identification and the behaviors resulting in identification level) that influence a fan's identification with an athlete spokesperson (Murrel & Dietz, 1992).

Fisher (1998) examined two motivations behind sports fans including team identification and personal identification to the team. The findings suggested that the fan's perception of similarity with the team plays a vital role in the identification process. He inferred that sports advertising could receive higher effectiveness while stressing similarities between the athletes and sports fans. However, the important components of the similarities remain unknown. Based on the literature, culture orientation might be one of the critical factors of similarity.

In general, numerous studies in the literature support the notion that celebrity endorsement is an effective strategy in advertising (Atkin & Block, 1983; Erdogan, 2005;

Freiden, 1984; Friedman & Friedman, 1997, 1999; Hovland, Janis, & Kelley, 1953;

Kamins, Brand, Hoeke, & Moe, 1989; Kelman, 1961; McCracken, 1989; MaGuire, 1985;

Mathur, Mathur, & Rengan, 1997; Walker, Langmeyer, & Langmeyer, 1992). Research

also suggests cultural differences have an impact on the success of celebrity endorsement

strategy (Choi, 2000; Till & Shimp, 1998; Watkins & Liu, 1996). McCracken's (1986,

1989) cultural meaning transfer model may be a good way to explain the underlying

reason for the impact of culture differences when considering celebrity endorsement.

Culture

stage 1 | Objects/Persons/Context   >>>   Celebrity

Endorsement

stage 2 | Celebrity   >>>   Product

Consumption

stage 3 | Product   >>>   Consumer
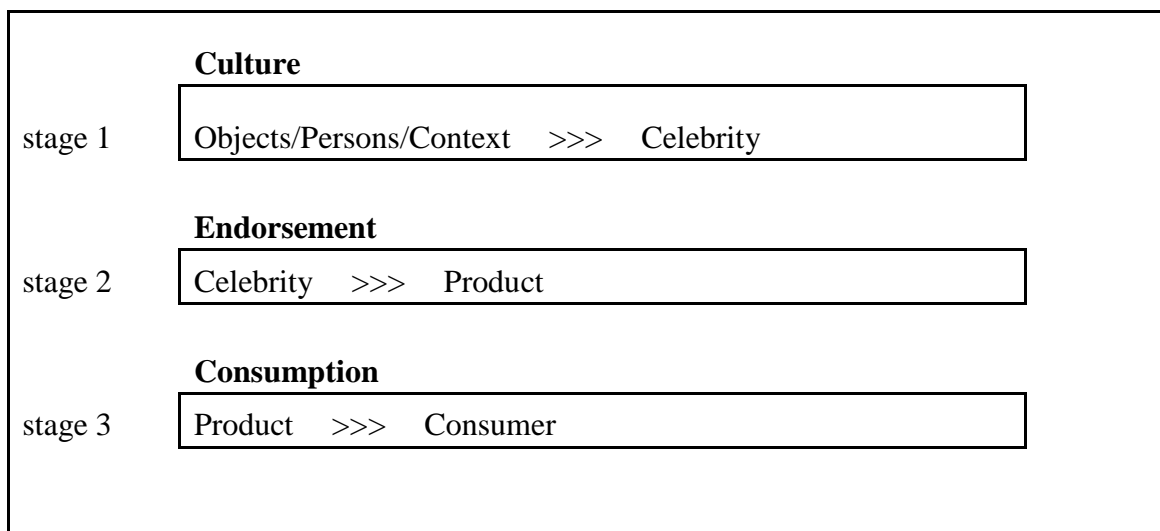
Source: Adapted from McCracken (1989) p. 315

Figure 2.1: Meaning Transfer Model and the Endorsement Process

2.2 Cultural Meaning Transfer Mode

McCracken (1986) suggested that successfully marketing a celebrity-endorsed

product relies on the transferring of cultural meanings that are represented in the

endorsement process. He developed a theoretical framework in regards to the movement

of the cultural meaning from a celebrity to consumer goods, as shown in Figure 2.1

(McCracken, 1986, 1989, p315). In this meaning transfer model, cultural meaning moves

from "the culturally constituted world" to "consumer goods" and then to the "individual

consumer". That is, the cultural meaning carried by a celebrity endorser transfers from

the endorser to the endorsed product and then moves from endorsed product to the

consumer. Specifically, this transfer occurs in three stages: encoding meanings, meaning

transfer, and meaning capture (Kulkarni & Gaulkar, 2005). In the first stage, every

spokesperson embodies unique meanings that are denoted by race, culture, wealth, status,

class, personality, life style, as well as age and gender (McCracken, 1986, 1989). Each

celebrity represents a unique set of meanings (Kulkarni & Gaulkar, 2005). To illustrate,

David Beckham is a symbol of a white European male with new wealth who is seen as

upper class, charming, and soccer star (Cashmore & Parker, 2003). Through repeated

exposures to the public, celebrities are perceived by consumers as a series of personality

traits and lifestyle meanings. Therefore, celebrities may attach their unique meanings to

the endorsed product or brand. However, McCracken (1989) maintains that this transfer

process is most effective when the unique symbolic meanings of the celebrity are

appropriate for the product or brand being endorsed.

In the second stage, cultural meanings transfers from the celebrities to the endorsed

product if well matched. The essential similarity between the spokesperson and the

endorsed product can make the transferring process more effective (McCracken, 1986, 1989).   For instance, if the newly Olympic (2008) 100m race champion Usain Bolt becomes a BMW endorser, the consumer should be able to recognize the similarity: the fastest in the world. When appropriately represented, Bolt can communicate the BMW image more powerfully than other potential endorsers. In other words, if consumers successfully perceive the similarities between the celebrity and the endorsed product or brand, they will accept the product or brand as well as the meanings transfer from the celebrities to the product or brand (Darnell & Spark, 2007; Kamins, 1990; Kamins & Gupta, 1994; Till & Busler, 2000).

In the last stage, purchasing products, lifestyle products (e.g., sneakers, perfume, and jewellery) in particular, consumers buy the product not only for the utilitarian character and commercial value, but also for the cultural meanings embodied by the celebrity endorsers (McCracken, 1986, 1989). In this way, consumers obtain the cultural meanings transfer from the endorsed products. For example, Yao Ming (Chinese NBA superstar) endorsed one type of Mac notebook featuring a large screen. Consumers are not merely purchasing the large screen Mac notebook, but the cultural meanings which Yao represents, including the biggest guy on the court, stability, reliability, strength, and trustworthiness. In short, this model is very useful in understanding the celebrity endorsement process as a cultural meaning transfer process.

McCracken claimed in a later study (1989, p.312) that advertising, e.g., celebrity endorsement, may function as a way of meaning transfer process while pairing the culturally constituted world and consumer products jointly. Langmeyer and Walker (1991) pursued McCracken's theory and demonstrated his theoretical concept in their research on celebrity endorsers. The findings suggested that meanings embodied by celebrities could be transferred to the endorsed product or brand. Tellis (1998) also claimed that McCracken's meaning transfer model is the best model to understand the popularity of using celebrity endorsers compared to other models (e.g., source attractiveness and source credibility).

Other researchers (Mathur, Mathur, & Rangan, 1997) further support McCracken's model by stating that the effectiveness of the advertisement partially depends on the meanings carried by the celebrity in the endorsement process. For example, former NBA super star Michael Jordan, one of the most popular celebrity endorsers (Frazees et al., 2003), represents an image of success, athleticism, attractiveness, and fame to viewers. Consumers who are attracted to Jordan and buy his shoes or other endorsed products such as Hanes underwear or Gatorade drink have identified the cultural meanings represented in him and then transfer to the endorsed products. The meaning of success initially transfers from Michael Jordan to the endorsed product, e.g. NIKE shoes, and then moves to the consumers who purchase the product. Marketing practitioners believe that consumer's perceptions of athletes, (e.g., success, athleticism, attractiveness, and fame),

can be transferred to the products simply through endorsement process. That is, we like

NIKE because we like Michael.

Additionally, associative learning theory which is closely related to classical

conditioning theory provides additional insight into understanding McCracken's meaning

transfer model. According to Klein (1991) and Martindale (1991), associative learning

assists in establishing links or relationships between concepts. In the context of celebrity

endorsement, celebrity endorsers and their endorsed products or brands can be connected

through associative learning. For example, NIKE Company successfully connects its

brand and Michael Jordan together with repeat media exposure. After the successful

pairing of the celebrity and the brand, viewers are likely to associate the unique meanings

and characteristics of Michael Jordan with the NIKE brand, such as, success, athleticism,

attractiveness, and fame. According to Priluck and Till (2004), associative learning

theory may be the best way to uncover the true reasons behind NIKE's marketing

accomplishment using celebrities as endorsers.

Other classical conditioning research (Grossman & Till 1998; Priluck & Till, 2004)

has also suggested that positive brand attitudes and consecutive belief formation may

occur while connecting pleasant images with brands. Till, Stanley, and Priluck (2008, p.

183) further supported the concept by stating, "conditioning has been proven a viable

framework for understanding advertising effectiveness".

In summary, McCracken (1989, p. 312) maintains, "a celebrity who best represents the appropriate symbolic properties of the product should be chosen". Therefore, the celebrity endorsement strategy must be carefully considered with a good deal of attention on the endorsed products and its encoded meanings of the cultures they represent. When celebrity endorsers and their endorsed products or brands fit or match, the endorsement is more likely to succeed. That is, advertising viewers perceive similarities between the endorsers and the endorsed products or brands after repeated media exposure and then connect the endorsers' images with the products and the brands. Further, the similarities between the endorsers and the endorsed products or brands would be perceived differently across cultural due to the culture variance. That is, endorsement strategy should be adapted to cultural differences while going global.

2.3 Cultural Differences and Dimensions

In marketing literature, the study of cross-cultural differences has become a central topic for academicians (Zhang, 2003). Cultural differences have been an important factor in determining the various perceptions in attitudes, cognitions, beliefs, and values (Hofstede & Bond, 1983). The effectiveness of celebrity endorsement is closely related to these different aspects of attitudes, cognitions, beliefs, and values. Research has indicated that advertisers should take into consideration cultural differences and, more specifically, celebrity endorsers should also receive greater attention with regards to the cultural

meanings they possess (Choi, Lee, & Kim, 2005; Lowe & Corkindale, 1998; McCracken, 1989; Money, Shimp, & Sakano, 2006; Pornpitakpan, 2003; Till & Shimp, 1998; Zhang, Yong, Gelb, & Betsy, 1996).

Hofstede referred to culture as "the interactive aggregate of common characteristics that influences a group's response to its environment" (1980, p.19). Based on the definition, Hofstede developed five cultural dimensions including power distance, uncertainty avoidance, masculinity and femininity, long-term time orientation and individualism/collectivism (1980). In his study, Hofstede collected and analyzed data from 88,000 employees and managers representing 40 different countries/cultures of a U.S based multinational corporation (IBM) and concluded that individualism/collectivism is a major dimension of cultural variability and key to understanding cross-cultural differences in communication behavior.

Specifically, individualism refers to the view of the self as independent as opposed to collectivism that refers to the view of the self as interdependent on the group (Aaker & Maheswaran, 1997; Han & Shavitt, 1994; Hofstede, 1980). In other words, individualism represents a culture, for example, Canadian culture values independence, self-realization, freedom, autonomy, self-sufficient entity, and high level of competition. Collectivistic culture, such as, Chinese culture emphasizes interdependence, harmony, family security, group decisions, social hierarchies, cooperation and a low level of competition (Watkins & Liu, 1996).

Choi, Lee, and Kim (2005) maintained that differences of individualism vs. collectivism have been considered in employing advertising strategies and executions such as the use of celebrity endorsement. Their research suggested advertising practitioners in individualistic cultures prefer to put their focal point on themes of independence, uniqueness, and personal achievement in their advertisements. Practitioners in collectivistic countries favor interdependence, family harmony, group well-being and concern for other people in their promotions (Belk & Bryce, 1986; Han & Shavitt, 1994). Therefore, it is critical to investigate celebrity endorsement in cross-cultural settings.

A few studies have investigated the influences of cultural differences on celebrity endorsement (Han & Shavitt, 1994; Money, Shimp, & Sakano, 2006; Toffoli, 1997; Yoon, Kim, & Kim, 1998; Zhang & Gelb, 1996). The findings indicate that cultural orientations (individualism vs. collectivism) have an impact on advertising strategies; however, there were no conclusive findings in previous research.

Several studies have found similarities between diverse cultures with regards to celebrity endorsers. Money et al. (2006) investigated the differences between U.S. respondents (individualism) and Japanese respondents (collectivism) on the influences of consumers' purchase intention after exposure of negative information regarding the celebrity endorser. The findings suggested for both U.S. and Japanese participants, exposure of self-oriented negative celebrity information result in a stronger purchase

intention regarding the endorsed products compared to the purchase intention of the participants who were exposed to other-oriented negative information or those participants who received no negative information. However, the Japanese participants had significantly lower purchase intentions toward a high-tech electronic device such as WebPad, compared to their U.S. contemporaries. One possible explanation was suggested that Japanese people are more technologically sophisticated than the Americans. In addition, Yoon et al. (1998) tested the differences between U.S. (individualistic culture) and Korean respondents (collectivistic culture) in regards to the effects of source credibility on attitudes and behavioral intentions. Surprisingly, the study results pointed out that the dimensionality of source credibility (attractiveness, trustworthiness, and expertise) was significantly similar between the two cultures.

There have also been remarkably different study results between cultures in the body of research. For example, Ohanian (1991) examined celebrity spokespersons and the effects of source credibility (attractiveness, trustworthiness, and expertise) on purchase intentions using a U.S. sample and concluded only expertise had a critical impact on purchase intention. In a later study, Pornpitakpan (2003) replicated Ohanian's research but using a Singaporean sample. In the later study, all three source credibility dimensions (attractiveness, trustworthiness, and expertise) had a significant impact on purchase intentions. These findings indicate that cultural differences may exist when considering celebrity characteristics and their influences on the purchase decision process.

Thus, it should be carefully considered while employing any advertising strategies in the international market especially between two different culture orientations (individualism vs. collectivism). Hence, it is important to further investigate cultural orientations and celebrity endorsement characteristics collectively, specifically, between collectivistic cultures and individualistic cultures.

According to Hofstede (1980) and Fernandez (1997), Canada represents an individualistic oriented culture while China has a collectivistic oriented culture. As the trade between Canada and China has tripled in the last decade (Beijing Time, 2003), it is worthwhile investigating the advertising differences between these two countries, especially, considering celebrity athlete endorsement.

Because little research on celebrity endorsement has been conducted in a cross-cultural setting, little is known with regards to the differences in the viewers' responses to celebrity characteristics across cultures. It is expected that viewers from different cultures will have diverse reactions with regards to several important celebrity characteristics. Perhaps one of the most important marketing constructs in celebrity endorsement literature is that of identification between the viewer and the celebrity endorser (Bandura, 1986; Forehand & Deshpande, 1984; Hirschman, 1981; Saenz & Agnirre, 1991; Whittler, 1989). In the case of cultural differences (individualism and collectivism), various cultural meanings carried by celebrity endorsers may lead to different levels of audience identification. That is, people from different cultures might

identify a celebrity endorser with stronger or weaker perception levels due to their

different cultural backgrounds.

2.4 Identification

Identification theory maintains that individuals who perceive themselves to be

similar to others (gender, race, age, etc.) will be more likely to adopt behaviors of the

person they perceive to be similar to themselves (Kamins, 1961). Because the individual

wants to be associated with that person or group, adoption of the behavior is seen as a

way of establishing or maintaining this relationship (Kamins, 1961; Kamins et al., 1989).

In the case of celebrity endorsed advertisements, viewers with high levels of

identification may be more likely to adopt the services or products advocated by the

celebrities. According to Whittler (1989), African-Americans would more likely identify

with the African-American actors and thus may consume the products or services

endorsed by the spokesperson. This identification process may be another important

underlying explanation with regards to the effectiveness of celebrity endorsement. Kamin

et al. (1989) supported Bandura's (1977) point by proposing a theory that an individual's

identification with another person has a critical impact on the likelihood of adopting a

behavior or attitude. Bandura (1986) also suggested identification processes depended on

the individual's perception of the similarities of the model. More specifically, gender,

race, age, physical attractiveness, and personality can all be the possible factors of

similarity consideration. The more an individual identifies with a model, the more likely the viewer might adopt the model's behavior. In other words, level of identification can be seen as a mediator between individual's behavior and the level of perceived similarity between themselves and the celebrity spokesperson.

Further, if a celebrity is perceived to be similar to a viewer, the viewer will have a higher level of identification towards the celebrity and will also result in a more favorable purchase behavior regarding the endorsed product or service (Brock, 1965). Individuals' perceptions of their similarity, such as race / ethnicity and religious beliefs, to a communicator (endorser) have been hypothesized to influence the viewer (Back, 1951). A series of previous studies, including Asian Americans (Ellis et al., 1985), African American (Williams & Qualls, 1989), individuals of Jewish heritage (Hirschman, 1981), and Hispanics (Deshpande, 1986; Saenz & Agnirre, 1991), have all investigated the impact of identification effects on the ethnic differences. The results have shown that individuals are more likely to accept testimony from sources similar to themselves rather than the dissimilar ones. The findings add clarity to the literature that advertisement viewers' responses, e.g., attitudes and purchase intentions, are influenced by the actors (endorsers) of different races.

Other research (Gerard & Hoyt, 1974; Madrigal, 2001; Ybarra & Trafimow, 1995) has suggested that strength of identification has been an important variable in influencing consumer's attention toward the product or service and affecting the purchase behavior in

advertising. Further, they believe that individuals who strongly identify with an actor

(endorser) are more likely to adopt the actor's norm and / or advocated behaviors, for

instance, purchase behavior (Ybarra & Trafimow, 1995). These studies fit well with

Kelman's (1961) identification model that suggests racial factors are critical in the

identification process. More specifically, an endorser's ethnicity / race might be

perceived positively by racially similar viewers but negatively for racially dissimilar

viewers (Whittler, 1989). Whittlers' (1991) study findings further suggests that Asian

viewers respond favorably to Asian endorsers and Asian-targeted advertisements,

especially when the viewers are racially sensitive; whereas Caucasians viewers respond

less favorably toward Asian endorsers and Asian-target advertisements. Two other

studies (Whittler 1989; Whittler & Scattone, 1991) investigated the influence of

African-American actors on white viewers and concluded that Caucasians were less

likely to purchase the products featuring African-American endorsers and they had more

negative attitudes toward the product and advertisement. In short, viewers are more likely

to be influenced by a same race actor (endorser) rather than a race dissimilar actor

(endorser) when they are viewing an advertisement (Brock, 1965; Burnstein et al., 1961).

    In Friedman and Friedman's study (1979), they pointed out that a celebrity

endorsement might achieve effectiveness through a successful identification process,

particularly when the products are high in social and psychological risk, for example,

clothing and jewelry. Other research (Brown, Basil, & Bocarnea, 2003) also supported

identification theory and concluded that identification occurs if advertising viewers

perceive a famous athlete as a public role model, who in turn promotes the attitudes,

beliefs, and behaviors advocated by this celebrity athlete. That is, identification works as

a mediator between celebrity endorsement and consumers' purchase intentions or

adoption behaviors. Increased levels of the perceived identification of the endorser, will

result in a stronger impact to the viewer's purchase intentions. That is, identification is

also an important factor in advertising effectiveness.

Also some empirical studies have investigated celebrity effectiveness regarding

identification theory. Deutsch and Gerard (1955) suggested that identification is in fact a

normative influence type of social influence. They stated if an individual desires to be

similar to a person or a group, this individual would adopt the behavior of the person or

the group in order to enhance the individual's self-image. They further stated that

characteristics of the celebrity endorser (e.g., attractiveness and likeability), have a strong

impact on the identification process. For example, in an individualistic culture,

consumers may adopt the behavior of a celebrity endorser featuring individualistic

characteristics, such as, independence and self-determination, because they aspire to be

similar to this individualistic celebrity endorser. On the other hand, people from

collectivistic cultures are more likely to perceive higher levels of identification from a

celebrity endorser who possesses collectivistic characteristics, for instance,

interdependence and cooperation. In short, people from different cultures are more likely to perceive higher levels of identification from endorsers who are similar to them.

In McCracken's earlier study (1989), he proposed that the endowed cultural meanings embodied by a celebrity endorser are critical to a celebrity endorser's marketing success. His statement is compatible with the identification theory we have discussed earlier in this section. That is, the greater the identification, the more likely the viewer will favorably perceive the cultural meanings carried by the endorser. In the case of cultural differences (individualism vs. collectivism), various cultural meanings carried by celebrity endorsers may lead to different levels of audience identification. That is, a celebrity endorser who represents an individualistic character (e.g., autonomous, independent, competitive, etc.) may have higher levels of identification from consumers in individualistic cultures because the endorser may be perceived to be more similar to the audience. On the other hand, spokespersons who are perceived as a collectivistic figure (e.g., team work, interdependent, less competitive, etc.) may have higher levels of identification from consumers in collectivistic cultures because the similarity recognized by the audience.

According to Brock (1965) and Burnstein et al. (1961), sources of the same race as the viewers might have higher levels of influences on the viewers, compared to sources of a different race. Therefore, viewers might perceive higher levels of identification toward same race endorsers rather than different race endorsers.

Hence, at the first stage of the study, the researcher initially compared the differences between Chinese and Canadian samples in regards to the effect of celebrity athlete endorser's sports dimension (team sports vs. individual sports) has on the perception level of identification. And next the researcher investigated the effect of cultural dimensions has on the perception level of identification toward an Asian endorser.

The first set of research questions addresses levels of identification with regards to cultural orientation and race of the viewer. In particular, H1a and H1b are comparative hypotheses testing the perceived identification levels between Chinese and Canadians in regard to athlete endorser's sports dimension (team sports vs. individual sports) whereas H1c is a cross cultural hypothesis investigating the impact of cultural dimensions (collectivism and individualism) has on the perception level of identification toward an Asian endorser.

The cultural dimension of individualism and collectivism in the present study is represented through individual and team sports athletes respectively. Identification between the viewer and celebrity athlete spokesperson is expected to correspond with one's cultural background (individualistic or collectivistic). Race of the spokesperson (Asian in this study) is also examined as a part of the identification process. Hence, it is hypothesized:

H1a: For Chinese respondents, identification levels with celebrity athlete endorsers will be greater when the celebrity is engaged in team sports than in individual sports.

H1b: For Canadian respondents, identification levels with celebrity athlete endorsers will be greater when the celebrity is engaged in individual sports than in team sports.

H1c: For Chinese respondents, identification levels with an Asian celebrity athlete endorser will be greater than Canadians' level of identification with an Asian celebrity athlete endorser.

2.5 Source Credibility

Choosing an appropriate celebrity to endorse a product or brand is often done successfully when the endorser and brand have similar characteristics or there is an obvious fit between the two (Till &Busler, 1998). For example, the highly ranked tennis player Roger Federer is a spokesperson for Wilson racquets and is likely to be viewed as a credible source given the sport he plays as well as the nature of the brand that he endorsers. More credible models have been found to be more persuasive and believable than less credible models (Atkin & Block, 1983; Hovland & Weiss, 1951; Hovland et al., 1953; Kamen, Azhari, & Kragh, 1975). In social psychology literature, source credibility and source attractiveness models have been widely studied (Atkin & Block, 1983; Friedman & Friedman, 1979; Hovland et al., 1953; Kamen et al., 1975; McGuire, 1985). Both frameworks examine characteristics of models or spokespersons with regards to the impact they have on the viewers' acceptance and responsiveness to messages. Researchers have investigated the relationship between source models (combining source credibility and source attractiveness together) and celebrity endorsement (Atkin & Block,

1983; Freiden, 1984; Hovland, Janis, & Kelley, 1953; Kamins, Brand, Hoeke, & Moe, 1989; ; MaGuire, 1958; McCracken, 1989Ohanian, 1990, 1991; Walker, Langmeyer, & Langmeyer, 1992). Some social psychologists (Hovland & Weiss, 1951; Hovland et al., 1953) first posit the source credibility model as a critical tool in determining the influence on a receiver's acceptance of a message by a spokesperson's positive characteristics. They contend that both expertise and trustworthiness of the source are vital factors in the effectiveness of an endorsement message. Patzer (1983) supports the notion by pointing out the effectiveness of celebrity testimony depends vitally on the source credibility level.

In addition to source expertise and trustworthiness, McGuire (1968) explored attractiveness as another dimension of source credibility based on his source valence model. In McGuire's (1985) study, he contended that the source's perceived characteristics including, familiarity, similarity, likeability, and attractiveness have a substantial impact on the effectiveness of a message. Further, Shank (2004) claimed that source attractiveness contains not only physically appearance but also nonphysical characteristics (e.g., personality and lifestyle).

Both the source credibility model (Hovland & Weiss, 1951; Hovland et al., 1953), which includes the dimensions of expertise and trustworthiness, and the source attractiveness model (McGuire, 1968, 1985), which contains a dimension of attractiveness, were originally employed for the study of communications and have not been used extensively in the celebrity endorsement process until a decade ago

(McCracken, 1989). As celebrity endorsement has become a critical strategy in the

advertising business, it was necessary to develop a systematic approach for the selection

of celebrity-spokespersons (Ohanian, 1990). Building on the results of past research,

Ohanian (1990, 1991) constructed her three dimensional source credibility scale based on

three perceived celebrity characteristics: attractiveness, trustworthiness, and expertise, in

order to measure the influence of specific endorsers such as celebrities and opinion

leaders on the effectiveness of advertising. In her source credibility model (1990, 1991),

attractiveness refers to source attributes including attractive, classy, beautiful, elegant,

and sexy. Trustworthiness refers to honesty and believability (Shank, 2004) and

ethicalness (Erdogan et al., 2004). It measures an individual's confidence in the source

regarding the endorsement (Ohanian, 1991). Expertise refers to a source's perceived

"authoritativeness" (McCroskey, 1966), "competence" (Whitehead, 1968), "expertise"

(Applbaum & Anatol, 1972), and "qualification" (Berlo, Lemert, & Mertz, 1969); that is,

"the extent to which a communicator is perceived to be a source of valid assertions"

(Hovland et al., 1953). In other words, expertise is the perceived qualification of the

source to make valid declaration (McCracken, 1989).

In a later study, Newell and Goldsmith (1997) found support for the reliability and

validity of two source credibility dimensions (trustworthiness and expertise). They

inferred in their study that consumer's purchase intention is not only influenced when the

"source" is a spokesperson, celebrity, or other individual but also affected when the

"source" is a corporation or company. In 2000, Goldsmith et al. developed a framework to further analyze the relationship between source credibility, attitudes-toward-the-ad, and attitudes-toward-the-brand so as to provide additional support for their previous research findings. The findings suggested both endorsers' credibility, e.g., attractiveness and expertise, and corporate credibility have influence on consumers' attitude-toward-the-ad, attitude-toward-the-brand, and purchase intention. The findings are also consistent with an earlier study (Lafferty & Goldsmith, 1999) that investigated the influences of endorser credibility and corporate credibility have on consumer's attitude toward ads, brand attitudes, and purchase intention as well. A great number of studies have demonstrated the importance of source credibility in the celebrity endorsement context (Atkin & Block, 1983; Goldsmith et al., 2000; Lafferty & Goldsmith, 1999; Newell & Goldsmith, 1997; Ohanian, 1991; Pornpitakpan, 2003); however, there is a dearth of literature that investigates source credibility models and its relation to purchase intention, brand attitudes, and advertising effectiveness, especially in cross-cultural settings.

Pornpitakpan (2003) conducted a study using Singaporean sample to examine the effect of three celebrity credibility dimensions on purchase intention with celebrity endorsers from different countries. The findings showed that all of the three credibility dimensions (attractiveness, trustworthiness, and expertise) had a positive and significant influence on purchase intention among Singaporeans. In a similar study conducted on a

U.S. sample, Ohanian's (1991) research finding pointed out that only expertise affects

product purchase intention whereas attractiveness and trustworthiness were not

significant. These findings implied that cultural differences might be an important factor

in the source credibility mode.

Yoon et al. (1998) have also investigated the influence of three important source

credibility dimensions: attractiveness, expertise, and trustworthiness, on purchase

intentions, attitude toward brand and brand beliefs and attitude toward the advertising in a

comparative study (U.S. vs. Korea). The finding suggested both U.S and Korean samples

of the three source credibility dimensions, attractiveness, expertise and trustworthiness,

are equally critical to influence consumer's purchase intention, and trustworthiness is the

only dimension that impacts attitude-toward-the-brand and brand beliefs. However,

Americans are more individualistic and less collectivistic than Koreans regarding the

participants' cultural orientations (individualism vs. collectivism).

Some other studies have also built on the effectiveness of celebrity endorsement with

regards to the celebrity characteristics cross-culturally (Choi, Lee, & Kim, 2005; Kilburn,

1998; Money, Shimp, & Sakano, 2006; Praet, 2002). In particular, celebrity endorsers'

attractiveness is considered more important than the other two source credibility

dimensions (trustworthiness and expertise) in Asian cultures (Choi et al., 2005; Kilburn,

1998; Praet, 2002). On the other hand, both Japanese and Americans had even stronger

purchase intention toward the endorsed product in regards to the perceptions of

self-oriented negative information toward celebrity endorsers. In summary, the findings

suggested people from different cultures (individualism vs. collectivism) might perceive

endorsers' source characteristics differently.

Therefore, in individualistic cultures, e.g., Canada, consumers might perceive

endorsers as having higher levels of source credibility (attractive, trustworthiness, and

expertise) if the source carries significant individualistic attributes, for instance,

independence and high levels of competition. On the other hand, in collectivistic cultures,

China for example, consumers might perceive endorsers as having higher levels of source

credibility (attractive, trustworthiness, and expertise) if the source possesses collectivistic

characteristics, such as, interdependence and cooperation. For individual sports players

who are normally required to have high levels of independence and competition, they are

likely to be perceived as having more individualistic features; whereas, team sports

players who are generally asked to be more interdependent and co-operative are likely to

be perceived as having more collectivistic features.

According to Brock (1965) and Burnstein et al. (1961), sources with same race as the

viewers might have higher levels of influences on the viewers, compared to sources with

a different race. That is, viewers might perceive higher levels of source characteristics,

e.g., attractiveness, trustworthiness and expertise, toward same race endorsers rather than

different race endorsers.

Hence, at the first stage of the study, the researcher then compared the differences between Chinese and Canadian samples in regards to the effect that celebrity athlete endorsers' sports dimensions (team sports vs. individual sports) have on the perception levels of source credibility (attractiveness, trustworthiness, and expertise). Then lastly, the researcher investigated the effect of cultural dimensions on the perception level of source credibility (attractiveness, trustworthiness, and expertise) toward an Asian endorser.

The second research question is: "Does cultural orientation matter in the perceived source credibility (attractive, trustworthiness, and expertise) characteristics of a celebrity athlete endorser?"

In particular, H2a, H2b, H3a, H3b, H4a, and H4b are comparative hypotheses testing the perceived source credibility (attractiveness, trustworthiness, and expertise) levels between Chinese and Canadians in regard to athlete endorser's sports dimension (team sports vs. individual sports) whereas H2c, H3c, and H4c are cross cultural hypotheses investigating the impact of cultural dimensions (individualism and collectivism) has on the perception levels of source credibility (attractiveness, trustworthiness, and expertise) toward an Asian endorser.

Hence, it is hypothesized:

H2a: Chinese respondents will perceive team sports endorsers as having higher levels of attractiveness than individual sports celebrity endorsers.

H2b: Canadian respondents will perceive individual sports endorsers as having higher levels of attractiveness than team sports celebrity endorsers.

H3a: Chinese respondents will perceive team sports endorsers as having higher levels of trustworthiness than individual sports celebrity endorsers.

H3b: Canadian respondents will perceive individual sports endorsers as having higher levels of trustworthiness than team sports celebrity endorsers.

H4a: Chinese respondents will perceive team sports endorsers as having higher levels of expertise than individual sports celebrity endorsers.

H4b: Canadian respondents will perceive individual sports endorsers as having higher levels of expertise than team sports celebrity endorsers.

As mentioned before, sources with same race of the viewers might have higher levels of influences on the viewers, comparing to sources with different race (Brock, 1965; Burnstein et al., 1961). Therefore, viewers might perceive higher levels of source credibility (attractiveness, trustworthiness, and expertise) towards same race endorsers rather than different race endorsers.

H2c: For Chinese respondents, attractiveness levels with an Asian celebrity athlete endorser will be greater than Canadians' level of attractiveness with an Asian celebrity athlete endorser.

H3c: For Chinese respondents, trustworthiness levels with an Asian celebrity athlete endorser will be greater than Canadians' level of trustworthiness with an Asian celebrity athlete endorser.

H4c: For Chinese respondents, expertise levels with an Asian celebrity athlete endorser will be greater than Canadians' level of expertise with an Asian celebrity athlete endorser.

In addition, the endorser would influence the likelihood of the audiences' purchasing behavior since the audiences' identification levels toward the celebrity are high. In the case of sports, an athlete spokesperson who symbolizes independence and competitiveness may have higher levels of identification from sports fans in individualistic cultures because the athlete carries individualistic cultural meanings and is perceived as similar to the fans. Further, the attitudes and behaviors advocated by this athlete endorser might lead to a significant influence on sports fans' purchasing intentions due to higher levels of identification. On the other hand, a sports star, that possesses collectivistic characteristics, e.g., team work and interdependence, might be perceived more similar toward fans from collectivistic cultures and which ultimately result in higher levels of identification that affect fans' purchase intention.

Kamins (1961) maintains that a spokesperson that is perceived to be similar to the audience will result in higher levels of identification. According to Bandura (1986) and Basil (1996), identification may have influence on attitude or behavior change. Advertising viewers have different levels of identification with a celebrity depending on the celebrities' characteristics. The higher level of identification, the likelihood the viewers may adopt the thoughts, beliefs, attitude, and behavior advocated by the endorser increases. In the case of celebrity endorsement, a celebrity who is perceived to have higher identification level would be more likely to influence the viewer's purchase intension.

At the second stage of the study, the researcher first compared the differences

between Chinese and Canadian samples in regards to the effect of identification levels

have on consumers' purchase intention. Hence, the third research question is, "Are there

any differences between Chinese and Canadian samples in terms of the effect of

identification levels have on purchase intention?"

Hence, it is hypothesized:

H5a: Higher levels of identification will lead to higher levels of purchase intention for Chinese respondents.

H5b: Higher levels of identification will lead to higher levels of purchase intention for Canadian respondents.

Based on past research findings, all three dimensions of source credibility

(attractiveness, trustworthiness, and expertise) have an impact on purchase intention

(Weiner & Mowen, 1985). Ohanian (1990, 1991) developed a source credibility scale

based on these three credibility dimensions in order to examine the celebrity endorsement

effectiveness. The study results pointed out that expertise is the only significant source

credibility dimension on the effect of consumer purchase intentions from a U.S. sample.

Kahle and Homer (1985) investigated the impact of source attractiveness on purchase

intention and suggested attractiveness is positively related to purchase intention.

Pornpitakpan's study (2003) also examined the relationships between source

characteristics, source attractiveness, source expertise, and source trustworthiness and

consumer purchase intentions in a collectivistic country (Singapore). The findings

revealed that all three source credibility dimensions have positive influences on

respondents' purchase intention. However, according to Ohanian (1991), purchase

intention did not affect by source attractiveness and trustworthiness for the U.S.

consumers. These findings indicated cultural dimensions might be a factor in determining

the effect of source credibility on purchase intentions.

Based on the past literature, all three source credibility dimensions (attractiveness,

trustworthiness, and expertise) have effects on consumers' purchase intentions for people

in a collectivistic culture such as Singapore (Pornpitakpan, 2003); however, expertise is

the only source credibility dimensions that notably influences on consumers' purchase

intentions for people in a individualistic culture such as the U.S. (Ohanian, 1990).

According to Hofstede (1980), China represents a typical collectivistic culture whereas

Canada denotes an individualistic culture. It is worthwhile to explore whether similar

study results might be found between these two cultures.

Past research investigating the source credibility model has primarily focused on U.S.

respondents while little research has been conducted on Canadian and Asian populations

(Atkin & Block, 1983; Choi et al., 2005; Hovland et al., 1953; Kamins, Brand, Hoeke, &

Moe, 1989; MaGuire, 1958; Money et al., 2006; Ohanian, 1990, 1991; Pornpitakpan,

2003; Walker, Langmeyer, & Langmeyer, 1992). Due to the dearth of information in the

literature on the perceptions of Canadian and Asian respondents, in particular Chinese

respondents, it is worthwhile to investigate the perceptions of celebrity characteristics of

attractiveness, trustworthiness and expertise among these populations. Presently there is

no known study in which Chinese respondents have been used to investigate perceptions

of the source credibility of a celebrity endorser and their purchase intentions.

The researcher continued to compare the differences between Chinese and Canadian

samples in regards to the effect of source credibility (attractiveness, trustworthiness, and

expertise) levels have on consumers' purchase intention at the second stage of the study.

Therefore, the forth research question is "Are there any differences between Chinese

and Canadian samples in terms of the effect of source credibility (attractiveness,

trustworthiness and expertise) levels have on purchase intentions?"

Hence, it is hypothesized:

H6a: Higher levels of attractiveness will lead to higher levels of purchase intention for Chinese respondents.

H6b: Higher levels of attractiveness will lead to higher levels of purchase intention for Canadian respondents.

H7a: Higher levels of trustworthiness will lead to higher levels of purchase intention for Chinese respondents.

H7b: Higher levels of trustworthiness will lead to higher levels of purchase intention for Canadian respondents.

H8a: Higher levels of expertise will lead to higher levels of purchase intention for Chinese respondents.

H8b: Higher levels of expertise will lead to higher levels of purchase intention for Canadian respondents.

3. Methodology

The primary purpose of the current study was to investigate the influence of celebrity athlete endorser's perceived identification and source credibility on consumers' intention to purchases in a cross-cultural research setting, in particular, this study compared the perceptions differences between Chinese and Canadians. Based on Jeon and Beatty (2002) and Toffoli's (1997) studies, they recommend, in cross-cultural studies, investigators should select two different cultural groups on opposite sides of cultural dimensions, and then examine the relationship of this factor with the other variables. For the current study, it followed the above approach in testing the hypothesis while selecting Canadian and Chinese samples as the two opposite cultural groups. According to Hofstede's (1984) cultural classification of individualism vs. collectivism, Canadians represent a group of people who emphasize independence, self-realization, freedom, autonomous, self-sufficient entity, and high levels of competition (individualism) and Chinese represent a group of people who value interdependence, harmony, family security, group decision, social hierarchies, teamwork, and low levels of competition (collectivism).

In order to test the hypothesis a scenario utilizing a fictitious celebrity and brand were employed. Existing scales measuring identification, source credibility, and cultural orientation were used. The scenario and scales were pretested in order to determine whether or not the manipulation worked and for potential problems in the wording of the

scales. This is particularly relevant in studies where two cultures are surveyed.

3.1. Scenario

In order to carry out the study, a fictitious celebrity athlete, Will Chang, was

introduced as a rising young endorser for a fictitious athletic shoe company (see

Appendix A). According to Till and Shimp (1998), employing a fictitious celebrity

athlete should minimize some prior exposure issues and help avoid prior perceptions of

real celebrities as well as their endorsement relations. For similar reasons, a fictitious

brand name could also reduce real world relations and perceptions towards the

endorsement. Two professional sports, golf and basketball, were chosen as manipulations

for both cultures (individualistic Canada and collectivistic China).

There were three major reasons for the choice of these two particular sports: (1) these

two sports are played by each gender; (2) these two sports are relatively well known and

popular in both cultures; and (3) these two sports represent a mix of individual sports and

team sports. The researchers used a name "Will Chang" along with a photograph of an

Asian young man as an introduction for both Canadian and Chinese participants. Except

for the language, the scenario and all the research questions had the same layout and

set-ups. The researchers chose the name Will Chang for this young athlete because it was

a combination of an Asian and North American ethnic background and so would be

identified easily by both the Canadian and the Chinese participants. Also, an Asian

appearance might enhance this study's manipulation in which the researcher tried to test

the differences in the levels of identification and source credibility (attractiveness,

trustworthiness, and expertise) between Chinese and Canadian respondents toward an

Asian endorser. And the company name, "E-generation", sounded relatively easy to

remember and was not similar to any existing sports company or brand name.

Shimp's (2003) study finding has suggested advertising viewers may easily build a

connection and / or identify more with athlete endorsers who carry similar characteristics

to themselves. In this study, the fictitious endorser (Will Chang) was manipulated in two

cultural conditions aimed to explore the possible perception differences between two

cultures (China vs. Canada).

Specifically, Will Chang was featured either as a junior golf champion with obvious

individualistic characteristics or as a basketball player featured with clear collectivistic

characteristics in order to exam the participants' responses in the two cultural conditions.

The conditions (individualism & collectivism) were assigned to questionnaires in a

random order. In one advertisement, Will Chang was featured with individualistic

attributes as a golf player in the individualistic manipulation. He was depicted as a

self-determined, independent, autonomous and highly competitive sports figure. For

example, to stress Will Chang's individualistic attributes, such as independent and

autonomous, the scenario said "Since age 16, he has lived by himself in order to focus on

golf" (see Appendix A). Moreover, to point out Will Chang's highly competitive

characteristic, the statement "Chang also practices with some AGP elite players during their off season and he never fails to challenge them" was added to the scenario (see Appendix A). In the collectivistic manipulation, Will Chang was portrayed as an interdependent and cooperative basketball player who is willing to sacrifice his self-interest for his team's benefit. To stress Will Chang's collectivistic features (e.g., cooperation) the scenario depicted that, "He helps his teammates whenever they ask and is even willing to spend his spare time helping" (see Appendix A).

3.2. Instruments

Previously developed scales that have been widely used in advertising and cross culture research were used in the present study (Baker & Churchill, 1977; Basil, 1996; Hofstede, 1980; Kahle & Homer, 1985; Mu, 2006; Ohanian, 1990, 1991). All scales were considered to be valid and reliable.

The five-item identification scale from Basil's (1996) study, the 14-item source credibility scale (attractiveness, trustworthiness, and expertise) developed by Ohanian (1990, 1991), and the three-item purchase intension scale also measured in Ohanian's (1990) study were adopted in this study. The identification scale was employed to measure a respondent's ability to perceive an endorser as being similar to ones self (Bandura, 1986; Basil, 1996). The source attractiveness scale was used to measure a respondent's perception towards the physical attributes of the endorser (Ohanian, 1990,

1991). The source trustworthiness scale was utilized in order to measure a respondent's perception with regards to the endorser (Ohanian, 1990, 1991). The source expertise scale was used to measure a respondent's perception towards the endorser's source validity (Ohanian, 1990, 1991). All these scales have been used in previous advertising research (Baker & Churchill, 1977; Kahle & Homer, 1985; Ohanian, 1990, 1991). According to Hofstede (1980), Canadian culture represents an individual culture and Chinese culture represents a typical collectivistic culture and thus the 12-item individualism vs. collectivism scale adapted by Jung (2002) and Mu (2006) was employed in the current study in order to test the cultural orientations of the respondents. Lastly, a purchase intention scale was used intending to measure the likelihood of a respondent's purchase intentions (Baker & Churchill, 1977).

3.2.1. Identification

Identification measures the respondent's ability to see another as being similar to oneself on one or more dimension (Bandura, 1986; Basil, 1996). In the current study, participants' level of identification toward the fictitious celebrity athlete was measured using a five-item scale (see Appendix E) based on an existing identification scale developed by Basil (1996). A 0.84 Cronbach's alpha was reported in Basil's (1996) study, which indicated a high level of reliability for the identification scale. A seven-point Likert-type scale ranging from 1 (strongly disagree) to 7 (strongly agree) was employed

to measure the identification construct (Basil, 1996) (see Appendix E). The participants

were required to answer questions relating to their identification levels toward a fictitious

athlete. For instance, one of the identification items asked the respondent to answer the

question "I think Will Chang could be a good friend" on the seven-point Likert-type scale.

A low score inferred a low level of identification whereas a high score indicated a high

level of identification.

3.2.2. Source Credibility

In order to measure source credibility dimensions, Ohanian's (1990, 1991)

multi-dimensional scale was adopted in the present study. Attractiveness, trustworthiness,

and expertise scales consisted of four, five, and five items respectively (see Appendix E).

Attractiveness and trustworthiness scales were measured using seven point likert scales

where 1 was the least favourable response (strongly disagree) and 7 was the most

favourable response (strongly agree). Attractiveness was used to measure the viewers'

perception toward the physical attractiveness of the endorser. Items on the attractiveness

scale asked respondents to rate the celebrity athlete endorser on perceived levels of

attractiveness, classiness, handsomeness, and sexiness. A low score inferred a low level

of perceived attractiveness of the endorser whereas a high score indicated a high level of

perceived attractiveness.

Trustworthiness measured the viewers' perceptions with regards to the confidence

that perceived statements made by the athlete endorser were true. Items on the

trustworthiness scale measure the celebrity athlete endorser's perceived levels of

dependability, honesty, reliability, sincerity, and trustworthiness. A low score inferred a

low level of perceived trustworthiness of the endorser whereas a high score indicated a

high level of perceived trustworthiness. In addition, the expertise scale was measured

employing a seven-point Semantic-differential scale ranging from 1 (not an expert) to 7

(an expert). Expertise was designed to measure whether or not the endorser was a

legitimate source by the viewers. Items on the expertise scale measure the celebrity

athlete endorser's perceived levels of expertise, experience, knowledge level,

qualification, and skills. A low score inferred a low level of perceived expertise of the

endorser whereas a high score indicated a high level of perceived expertise. In summary,

Ohanian's (1991) measures were chosen due to rigorous scale development and because

they have been widely used and validated.

3.2.3. Culture Dimension

As Hofstede (1980) explains, individualism-collectivism is an important cultural

dimension that captures the differences among various cultures. Individualism represents

an "I" consciousness philosophy whereas collectivism suggests a "we" consciousness

(Hofstede, 1980). Based on Hofstede (1980) and Fernandez et al.'s (1997) study findings,

Canadian culture represents a highly individualistic culture and China represents a typical

collectivistic culture. For this purpose, the researchers adopted a 12-item Individualism /

collectivism scale (Cronbach's alpha, 0.82) from Jung (2002) and Mu (2006) in order to

examine the culture dimensions of the participants (individualistic Canada vs.

collectivistic China) (see Appendix C). In the current study the Individualism /

collectivism scale was measured using seven-point Likert-type scale where 1 was the

least favourable response (strongly disagree) and 7 the most favourable response

(strongly agree). A low score inferred the respondent has a weaker individualistic /

collectivistic characteristic whereas a high score indicated the respondent has a stronger

individualistic/collectivistic characteristic. An example of an individualism item was, "I

would rather be known for who I am as a member than as a member of an organization to

which I belong". On the other hand, "I believe that it is my duty and obligation to observe

the norms set by the group to which I belong, even if personal costs outweigh personal

benefits" was used as a collectivism item.

3.2.4. *Demographic Variables*

Demographic variables included in the present study were nationality, education

background, length of residence (Canadian sample), age, and gender (Hofstede, 1980)

(see Appendix I). Since this was a cross-cultural study between Canada and China, the

nationality measure needed to be included. Acculturation was another factor determining

the study's validity and thus time as a Canadian residence was measured (Olmedo &

Padilla, 1978). Lastly, education background, age, and gender were used in the current

study since they have been widely used in management research.

3.3. Questionnaires

Questionnaires were composed of two versions which included an English version

(Canadian participants) and Chinese version (Chinese participants). One bilingual

Chinese graduate student and one bilingual Chinese Professor (Management) translated

the identification, attractiveness, trustworthiness, expertise, purchase intension, and

Individualism / collectivism scales from English to Chinese. Two other Chinese graduate

students back-translated all the scales to English. Unclear words, phrases, and culture

differences were thoroughly negotiated. Further, several of the scales (Jung, 2002; Mu,

2006) had been previously translated from English to Chinese so these revisions were

also initially consulted.

In both versions of the questionnaires there were three parts. The layout of both

versions was identical in order to avoid possible confusion (see Appendix A-J).

Specifically, part one introduced the study purpose and required all the participants to

sign a consent form in order to satisfy ethical matters (see Appendix K). Part two

included an introduction of a fictitious sports company (E-generation) which was not

recognized as any existing sports brand / company and a fictitious athlete endorser (Will

Chang) along with his picture which was scanned from a Japanese sneaker magazine (see

Appendix A). In the scenario, the athlete endorser (Will Chang) was either featured with

many individualistic characteristics as an individual sport (golf) player or featured with

many collectivistic attributes as a team sports (basketball) player. These two profiles of

the endorser (Will Chang) worked as a manipulation for culture dimensions. Part three

consisted of seven measurement scales which included identification, attractiveness,

trustworthiness, expertise, Individualism / Collectivism scale, and purchase intention

scale along with demographic variables (see Appendix I)

3.4. Pre-test

A pre-test was employed at the University of Lethbridge. It aimed not only to check

the wording of questionnaire but also to test the manipulation of individualism vs.

collectivism. More specifically, to examine whether the participants in the individualistic

condition perceived the athlete " Will Chang" (golf player) to possess significantly more

individualistic characteristic than the participants in the collectivistic condition. Similarly,

to test whether the participants in the collectivistic condition perceived the athlete "Will

Chang" (basketball player) to have remarkably more collectivistic attributes than the

participants in the individualistic condition. In the individualistic manipulation, Will

Chang was introduced as a golf player who carried many individualistic characteristics,

e.g., "Chang has always been self-determined and has practiced on his own without

encouragement" and "He likes to wear hats (designed by him) for important games" (see Appendix A1). In the collectivistic manipulation, Will Chang represented a typical collectivistic sports figure who is a basketball player, e.g., "He helps his teammates whenever they ask and is even willing to spend his spare time helping" and "He has always been a good team player" (see Appendix A1).

3.4.1. Pre-test Participants

In total, 76 university of Lethbridge students participated in the pre-test. They were 36 Canadian students enrolled in summer courses (2008) and 40 Chinese students from the EAP (English as a Second Language for Academic Purposes) program. Both groups had similar demographic profiles including age and gender. Participants were male and female from 18 to 24 for both Canadian and Chinese participants.

3.4.2. Pre-test Recruitment and Procedure

All Canadian respondents in the pre-test were recruited through the mailing list of University of Lethbridge students while all Chinese participants in the pre-test were recruited from the EAP (English as a Second Language for Academic Purposes) program due to convenience. All participants first received an opening page with an introduction of the experiment and matters relevant to human subject issues. After signing the consent form, the participants read the background information and the scenario of the current

study, and then were asked to answer the questionnaires.

The scenario of the athlete endorser manipulated individualism vs. collectivism figures. The individualistic golf player was used in the individualism condition while the collectivistic basketball player was used in the collectivism condition (see Appendix A1). The participants were randomly assigned to either the individualism condition or the collectivism condition. The resulting number of participants was 17 in the individualism condition and 19 in the collectivism condition for the Canadian sample and 20 in the individualism condition and 20 in the collectivism condition for the Chinese sample.

3.4.3. Pre-test Incentives

All participants were notified that they would have a chance to win a $50 gift card from a local grocery store by participating in the study as compensation for their time and efforts. The prize was distributed to a randomly selected participant disregarding the completeness of the survey.

4. Results (Pretest)

4.1. General Information

A total of 76 University of Lethbridge students participated in the study. It included 36 Canadian students (English version) and 40 Chinese students (Chinese version). Both groups had similar demographic profiles including age and gender (see Table 4.1). Male and female participants ranged in age from 18 to 24 for both the Canadian and Chinese samples.

Table 4.1: Demographic Information for Pretest Samples

Demographic Information	Canadian	Chinese	Total
Number	36	40	76
Percentage	47.37%	52.63%	100%
Age (*Mean*)	21.33	20.78	
Gender (Female)	Inapplicable	50%	Inapplicable
Years lived in Canada (*Mean*)	20.50	0.92	Inapplicable
(*Standard deviation*)	1.78	0.34	Inapplicable

4. 2. Reliability Test

In order to test the internal consistency of the scales used in the pretest (identification, attractiveness, trustworthiness, expertise, and cultural dimension) reliability analyses were conducted (see Table 4.2). The purchase intention scale was adopted from a previous study (Baker & Churchill, 1977). Most of the Cronbach's alphas from the scales used were over .87 suggesting strong internal consistency. However, the coefficient reliabilities of the collectivistic scale (Canadian, $\alpha = .792$ and Chinese, $\alpha = .768$) in both

the samples were relatively lower but still exceeded the recommended level of .70

(Nunnally & Bernstein, 1994). In addition, all the coefficient alphas of the measurements

were generally similar to each other, which suggest that the measurements adapted from

one culture worked similarly in both cultures (Pornpitakpan, 2003).

Table 4.2: Cronbach's Alphas of All Measurements (Pretest)

Cronbach's Alpha	Canadian	Chinese
Identification	0.883	0.925
Attractiveness	0.911	0.884
Trustworthiness	0.953	0.947
Expertise	0.972	0.946
Individualism	0.901	0.875
Collectivism	0.792	0.768

4.3. Manipulation Check in Pre-test

The manipulation of individualism vs. collectivism was successful for both the

Canadian and Chinese samples (see Table 4.3). For the Canadian sample, the participants

in the individualistic condition perceived the athlete endorser (Will Chang as a golfer) to

possess significantly higher individualistic characteristics ($M = 5.25$, $SD = 0.51$) than the

participants in the collectivistic condition (basketball player) did ($M = 3.12$, $SD = 0.53$,

$t(36) = 12.15$, $\rho < .000$). It was also similar for the Chinese sample. The participants in

the individualistic condition perceived the athlete endorser, Will Chang as a golfer ($M =$

2.10, $SD = 0.49$), to possess significantly higher individualistic characteristics than the

participants in the collectivistic condition, Will Chang as a basketball player, did   ($M =$

3.67, $SD = 0.63$, $t(40) = 11.55$, $\rho < .000$).

Table 4.3: Manipulations Checks on Individualism / Collectivism (Pretest)

Respondents	*Canadian*			*Chinese*		
Condition	*Individualism*	*Condition*		*Collectivism*	*Condition*	
Scale/Sports	n	M	SD	n	M	SD
Individual	36			40		
sports	20	5.25	0.51	20	4.90	0.49
Team sports	16	3.12	0.53	20	3.33	0.36
t Test	12.15			11.55		
ρ level	0.000			0.000		

4.4. Conclusion of the Pre-test

The wording of the questionnaire was clear for the respondents. However, there were

several questions regarding the Individualistic / Collectivistic scale in the Chinese version

of the survey. One possible reason may be problems resulting from the language

differences between Chinese and English.

All the measurement scales including identification, attractiveness, trustworthiness,

expertise, purchase intention and Individualism/collectivism scales proved to be both

significant and with acceptable levels of internal validity (see Table 4.2).

The manipulation of cultural dimensions (individualism vs. collectivism) was

successful. The golf player featuring individualistic characteristics was perceived as

significantly more individualistic then the basketball player in both versions (Chinese and

English). On the other hand, the basketball player was recognized as remarkably more

collectivistic than the golf player in both versions (Chinese and English).

5. Methodology (Main Study)

5.1. Changes Made to the Main Study

Several adjustments were made to the main study based on the results of the

pre-test. First, the manipulation of collectivism was revised by adding stronger

collectivistic attributes. To illustrate: "In the summer of 2007, he gave up a valuable

opportunity to attend NBA summer camp in order to train with his team during the

summer" was added as a strong indication of Will Chang's collectivistic perception, that

is, he is willing to sacrifice his self-interest for the benefit of the group (see Appendix A).

Moreover, some changes were made to the Chinese version of the Individualistic /

Collectivistic scale in order to reduce confusion for Chinese respondents based on their

opinions in the pre-test. More specifically, "I often do 'my own thing'", was changed to

"I often take actions by myself without considering group decision." in the Chinese

version due to cultural differences between Chinese and Canadian perceptions.

Additionally, two demographic variables were adjusted according to some previous

celebrity endorsement studies that pointed out that education and ethnicity might

influence the viewer's perception (Whittler, 1989, 1991). First of all, the demographic

education variable was adjusted from five categories (less than high school, high school,

diploma, bachelors, and graduate degree) to six categories (added "other") in order to

receive more accurate response. Secondly, the nationality question was changed to an

ethnicity question because Canada has an open immigration policy (Green, 2004), and

some citizens and immigrants might carry a collectivist cultural background, which may influence the results of the current study. Caucasian, Asian, African-American, Hispanic, Middle Easterner, and Other ethnicity were selected to measure the ethnicity in the question.

5.2. *Experimental Design, Subjects, and Procedure*

The present study was a two-stage design. In stage one, the research investigated whether the sports dimension (team sports vs. individual sports) influenced the respondents' levels of perceived identification, attractiveness, trustworthiness and expertise toward the spokesperson and whether the influence was similar in both Chinese (collectivists) and Canadian (individualists) conditions. In addition, the research also explored the cultural difference (collectivism vs. individualism) on the participants' perceptions (identification, attractiveness, trustworthiness, and expertise) toward an Asian spokesperson. The sports dimension was the independent variable and identification and the three source credibility dimensions, attractiveness, trustworthiness, and expertise were used as dependent variables in the first stage.

In the second stage, identification and three source credibility dimensions: attractiveness, trustworthiness, and expertise, were used as independent variables and purchase intension was the only dependent variable.

Both Canadian and Chinese participants were recruited through an online survey

company: Zoomerang operates as a functioning department of Market Tools, Inc. All participants were members of an online panel (Zoomerang) and they received email invitations to participate in this online study. A total number of 411 respondents (206 Canadians and 205 Chinese) finished the survey. All survey participants were awarded "Zoomerang Points" as compensation for their time and efforts although some of them did not complete the online survey.

The electronic questionnaires initially introduced the purpose of this research. An informed consent form was presented before the study began and all the participants were requested to sign the form in order to continue the survey. Next, a scenario featuring a fictitious celebrity athlete (Will Chang) was introduced as a rising young endorser for a fictitious athletic shoe company in this part of the questionnaire (see Appendix A). On this page, a picture representing Will Chang appeared along with the scenario. There were two types of scenarios with identical pictures and layout. One scenario featured an individualistic golfer player whereas the other one featured a collectivistic basketball player. The picture and layout for the two surveys were identical in order to eliminate bias. The participants were randomly assigned to the survey conditions featuring either a golf player or a basketball player. Following the scenario, participants were asked to respond to questions based on the provided scenario. Generally, the participants were able to finish the survey within 15 to 20 minutes.

5.3. Instruments

The purchase intention scale was added to the main study and was intended to measure the likelihood of a respondent's purchase intentions (Baker & Churchill, 1977). According to Lafferty et al. (1999), purchase intention refers to the viewer's likelihood of trying, buying and seeking the advertised product the next time they purchase. To measure purchase intention, the current study used a three-item scale from Baker and Churchill's (1977) purchase intention scale in the earlier advertising research (see Appendix G). Since the scale has been widely used in advertising research, the scale is considered to be reliable and valid.

The respondents were asked to indicate their purchase intention on certain questions, for example, if Will Chang becomes an E-Generation product endorser, how likely would you buy / enquire / consider an E-Generation product? This study used a six-point Likert-type scale ranging from 1 (definitely not buy) to 6 (definitely buy) in order to reduce neutral answers (e.g., choose the mid-point of a seven-point scale) from the respondents. A low score inferred a low level of purchase intention of the respondent whereas a high score indicated a high level of purchase intention.

6. Results (Main study)

6.1. Descriptive Statistics

A total of 411 respondents including 206 Canadians and 205 Chinese completed the survey. Only two unfinished cases (one Canadian and one Chinese) were removed from the database because of multiple missing values. The researcher also removed 11 (six Canadian and five Chinese) cases since they were extreme outliers which had values beyond 3 standard deviations on important parts of the scales (Cooper & Scindler, 2006). The final sample consisted of 197 Canadians and 201 Chinese participants.

In the Canadian sample, 54.3% (107 out of 197 respondents) were male (see Table 6.1). The average age of the Canadian respondents was 35.39 years old. Most of the respondents (97.0%) had at least a high school education (high school = 32.0%, diploma = 24.9%, and bachelors = 20.8%). Of the Canadian sample, 161 cases which represented 81.72% of the Canadian sample population were Caucasians and only 21 respondents (10.66%) were Asians. Also, 84.8% of all the Canadian respondents spent their whole lives in Canada and only about 6.1% of the Canadian respondents had lived in Canada less than 10 years.

Among the Chinese sample, 57.7% were male respondents (115 out of 201). The average age of all the respondents was 32.30 years old. Slightly different than the Canadian sample, 91% of the Chinese respondents received at least a college diploma

prior to the survey, which indicated a stronger education background for the Chinese

sample compare to the Canadian sample.

Furthermore, 95 Canadian participants (48%) answered the surveys featuring the

celebrity endorser as an individual sports player (golfer) while 103 Chinese participants

(52%) answered the surveys with a team sports player (basketball player) as their

scenario celebrity athlete.

Table 6.1: Demographic Information of Main Study

Demographic Information	Canadian	Chinese	Total
Number	197	201	398
Percentage	49.50%	50.50%	100%
Gender (Female)	54.30%	42.30%	48.24%
Age (Range)	18-54	18-54	18-54
(*Mean*)	35.39	32.30	33.83
College Graduated	65%	91%	Inapplicable
Years lived in Canada (*Mean*)	31.97	Inapplicable	Inapplicable
(Standard deviation)	12.63	Inapplicable	Inapplicable
Ethnic Background (Caucasian)	81.72%	Inapplicable	Inapplicable
(Asian)	10.66%	Inapplicable	Inapplicable
(African-American)	1.02%	Inapplicable	Inapplicable
(Middle-Easterner)	0.50%	Inapplicable	Inapplicable
(Others)	6.10%	Inapplicable	Inapplicable

To test the equivalency of the two different cultural groups, ANOVA tests were

conducted on the demographic characteristics of both groups. Respectively, ANOVA

tests showed that age, $F (1, 396) = 8.566, p < .05$, education, $F (1, 396) = 16.830$,

$p < .001$, and gender, $F (1, 396) = 4.712, p < .05$, were significantly different between the two cultural groups (Canada and China) in the present study. More specifically, Canadian respondents were slightly older (Age $M = 35.39$) compared to the Chinese sample (Age $M = 32.30$) whereas Chinese respondents were more educated (Education $M = 3.75$) than the Canadian sample (Education $M = 3.29$).

Although the three demographic variables (age, gender, and education) of the cultural groups were not equivalent, results are not likely to be compromised because prior identification and source credibility (source attractiveness, source trustworthiness, and source expertise) studies showed age and education variables were not very effective predictors on the perception of celebrity's identification and source credibility (Basil, 1996; Pornpitakpan, 2003). In addition, the researchers also considered age, gender, and education variables as control variables in the subsequent analysis and found out all three control variables did not have significant impact on the results.

6.2. Reliability Analysis

In order to test the internal consistency of the scales used in the current study (identification, attractiveness, trustworthiness, expertise, cultural dimension, and purchase intention) reliability analyses were conducted (see Table 6.2). Most of the Cronbach's alphas exceeded the acceptable level .70 (Nunnally & Bernstein, 1994). However, the coefficient alphas of the individualistic scale (Canadian $\alpha = .867$ and

Chinese $\alpha = .844$) and collectivistic scale (Canadian $\alpha = .786$ and Chinese $\alpha = .785$) in

both the Canadian and Chinese samples were relatively lower although they were still

within an acceptable level of internal consistency. In addition, all the coefficient alphas of

the measurements were generally similar to each other in the Canadian and Chinese

samples, which may suggest that the measurements adapted from one culture worked as

effectively in the other culture (Pornpitakpan, 2003).

Table 6.2: Cronbach's Alphas of All Measurements (Main Study)

Cronbach's Alpha	Canadian	Chinese
Identification	0.870	0.878
Attractiveness	0.922	0.871
Trustworthiness	0.966	0.942
Expertise	0.951	0.951
Individualism	0.867	0.844
Collectivism	0.786	0.785
Purchase Intention	0.936	0.938

6.3. Hypotheses Testing (Stage One)

To test the hypotheses, descriptive analysis, independent sample t-test, ANOVA and

regression analysis were conducted. In this section, cultural dimensions and sports

dimensions were the two independent variables whereas identification and source

credibility (attractiveness, trustworthiness, and expertise) were the four dependent

variables for the first stage of the study. Age, gender, and education served as control

variables throughout the study.

6.3.1. Identification

Hypothesis 1a predicted that Chinese respondents would have higher levels of identification with a team sports endorser (basketball) compared to an individual sports endorser (golf). People in a collectivistic culture (China) were believed to have higher identification levels toward a team sports (basketball) player since the athlete carries collectivistic cultural meanings. In order to compare the mean difference of identification level between the two sports groups (basketball vs. golf) of the Chinese participants, independent samples t-test was adopted. As seen in Table 6.3, Chinese participants scored higher in the identification scale toward a team sports endorser ($M = 4.93$) than an individual sports endorser ($M = 4.70$), however, there were no significant differences in levels of identification (t (199) = -1.265, $\rho < .15$). The findings suggest that Chinese respondents do not perceive a higher level of identification with the team sports (basketball) endorser. Hence, hypothesis 1a is not supported.

Table 6.3: Independent Sample Test for Identification (Chinese Sample)

	Stats			*T test*			
D.V.	n	M	SD	F	t	df	Sig.
Iden.				0.370	-1.265	199	0.144
Sports							
Golf	99	4.70	1.14				
Bask.	102	4.93	1.07				

Hypothesis 1b predicted that Canadian respondents would have higher levels of

identification with an individual sports endorser (golf) compared to a team sports

endorser (basketball). People in an individualistic culture (Canada) were believed to have

higher identification levels toward an individual sports (golf) player because the athlete

carries individualistic cultural meanings. In order to compare the mean difference of

identification level between the two sports groups (golf vs. basketball) of the Canadian

respondents, independent samples t-test was used. In Table 6.4, Canadian participants

scored higher in the identification scale toward a team sports endorser ($M = 4.65$) rather

than an individual sports endorser ($M = 4.32$). However, there were no significant

difference in levels of identification (t (195) = -1.938, p < .06). The findings suggest that

Canadian respondents do not perceive a higher level of identification with the individual

sports (Golf) endorser. Hence, hypothesis 1b is not supported.

Table 6.4: Independent Sample Test for Identification (Canadian Sample)

	Stats			*T test*			
D.V.	n	M	SD	F	t	df	Sig.
Iden. *Sports*				1.893	-1.938	195	0.054
Golf	95	4.32	1.15				
Bask.	102	4.65	1.24				

Hypothesis 1c predicted that Chinese respondents would have higher levels of

identification with the celebrity endorser Will Chang because of his Asian appearance

compared to Canadian respondents. People in a collectivistic culture (China) were

believed to have higher identification levels toward an Asian celebrity endorser because

the athlete was perceived to be similar to them. In order to compare the mean difference

of identification levels between the two cultural groups (Canada vs. China), an

independent sample t-test was used. As seen in Table 6.5, Canadian participants scored

($M = 4.50$) much lower in the identification scale toward the Asian celebrity endorser

(Will Chang) compared to the Chinese participants ($M = 4.82$). There was a significant

difference in levels of identification (t (396) = -2.783, $\rho < .006$). The findings suggest that

Chinese respondents perceived higher levels of identification with the Asian sports

endorser than the Canadian respondents. Hence, hypothesis 1c is supported.

Table 6.5: Independent Sample Test for Cultural Difference (Identification)

	Stats			*T test*			
D.V.	n	M	SD	F	t	df	Sig.
Iden.				0.783	-2.783	396	0.006
Cult.							
CA	197	4.50	1.21				
CHN	201	4.82	1.11				

6.3.2. Source Credibility (Attractiveness)

Hypothesis 2a predicted that Chinese respondents would assign higher ratings of

attractiveness to a team sports endorser (basketball) compared to an individual sports

endorser (golf). People in a collectivistic culture (China) were believed to perceive higher

levels of attractiveness toward a team sports (basketball) player since the athlete carries

collectivistic cultural meanings. In order to compare the mean difference of attractiveness

level between the two sports groups (basketball vs. golf) of the Chinese participants, an

independent sample t-test was used. As seen in Table 6.6, Chinese participants scored

slightly lower in the attractiveness scale toward a team sports endorser ($M = 4.82$) than an

individual sports endorser ($M = 4.85$), there were no significant differences in ratings of

attractiveness (I (199) = 0.172, $\rho < .90$). The findings suggest that Chinese respondents

do not perceive higher levels of attractiveness with the team sports (basketball) endorser.

Hence, hypothesis 2a is not supported.

Table 6.6: Independent Sample Test for Attractiveness (Chinese Sample)

	Stats			*T test*			
D.V.	n	M	SD	F	t	df	Sig.
Attr.				0.000	0.172	199	0.864
Sports							
Golf	99	4.85	1.11				
Bask.	102	4.82	1.15				

Hypothesis 2b predicted that Canadian respondents would assign higher ratings of

attractiveness with an individual sports endorser (golf) compared to a team sports

endorser (basketball). People in an individualistic culture (Canada) were believed to

perceive higher ratings of attractiveness toward an individual sports (golf) player because

the athlete carries individualistic cultural meanings. In order to compare the mean

difference of attractiveness level between the two sports groups (golf vs. basketball)

among the Canadian respondents, an independent sample t-test was used. As seen in Table

6.7, Canadian participants rated the individual sports endorser ($M = 4.26$) higher than the

team sports endorser ($M = 4.04$), however, there were no significant differences in ratings

of attractiveness (t (195) = 1.265, $p < .30$). The findings suggest that Canadian

respondents do not perceive higher ratings of attractiveness with the individual sports

(golf) endorser. Hence, hypothesis 2b is not supported.

Table 6.7: Independent Sample Test for Attractiveness (Canadian Sample)

	Stats			*T test*			
D.V.	n	M	SD	F	t	df	Sig.
Attr.				0.003	1.265	195	0.211
Sports							
Golf	95	4.26	1.21				
Bask.	102	4.04	1.23				

Hypothesis 2c predicted that Chinese respondents would assign higher ratings of

attractiveness to an Asian celebrity endorser compared to Canadian respondents. The

Chinese respondents were believed to assign higher ratings of attractiveness toward an

Asian celebrity endorser because the athlete was perceived to be similar to them. In order

to compare the mean difference of attractiveness level between the two cultural groups

(Canada vs. China), an independent sample t-test was used. As seen in Table 6.8,

Canadian participants scored much lower in the attractiveness scale toward the Asian

celebrity endorser (M = 4.15) compared to Chinese participants (M = 4.84). There was a

significant difference in levels of attractiveness (t (396) = -5.852, ρ < .000). The findings

suggest that Chinese respondents perceived higher ratings of attractiveness with the

Asian sports endorser than the Canadian respondents. Hence, hypothesis 2c is supported.

Table 6.8: Independent Sample Test for Cultural Difference (Attractiveness)

	Stats			*T test*			
D.V.	n	M	SD	F	t	df	Sig.
Attr.				0.218	-5.852	396	0.000
Cult.							
CA	197	4.15	1.22				
CHN	201	4.84	1.13				

6.3.3. Source Credibility (Trustworthiness)

Hypothesis 3a predicted that Chinese respondents would assign higher ratings of

trustworthiness to a team sports endorser (basketball) compared to an individual sports

endorser (golf). People in a collectivistic culture (China) were believed to perceive higher

ratings of trustworthiness toward a team sports (basketball) player since the athlete

carries collectivistic cultural meanings. In order to compare the mean difference of

trustworthiness level between the two sports groups (basketball vs. golf) of the Chinese

participants, an independent sample t-test was used. As seen in Table 6.9, Chinese

participants scored higher in the trustworthiness scale toward a team sports endorser (M =

5.20) than an individual sports endorser (M = 4.94), there was no significant difference in ratings of trustworthiness (t (199) = -1.471, ρ < .15). The findings suggest that Chinese respondents do not perceive higher ratings of trustworthiness with the team sports (basketball) endorser. Hence, hypothesis 3a is not supported.

Table 6.9: Independent Sample Test for Trustworthiness (Chinese Sample)

	Stats			*T test*			
D.V.	n	M	SD	F	t	df	Sig.
Trus.				0.258	-1.471	199	0.143
Sports							
Golf	99	4.94	1.22				
Bask.	102	5.20	1.30				

Hypothesis 3b predicted that Canadian respondents would assign higher ratings of trustworthiness with an individual sports endorser (golf) compared to a team sports endorser (basketball). People in an individualistic culture (Canada) were believed to perceive higher ratings of trustworthiness toward an individual sports (golf) player because the athlete carries individualistic cultural meanings. In order to compare the mean difference of trustworthiness level between the two sports groups (golf vs. basketball) among the Canadian respondents, an independent sample t-test was used. As seen in Table 6.10, Canadian participants scored slightly higher in the trustworthiness scale toward an individual sports endorser (M = 4.93) than a team sports endorser (M = 4.88), however, there were no significant differences in ratings of trustworthiness (t (195)

$= 0.295, \rho < .80$). The findings suggest that Canadian respondents do not perceive higher

ratings of trustworthiness with the individual sports (golf) endorser. Hence, hypothesis 3b

is not supported.

Table 6.10: Independent Sample Test for Trustworthiness (Canadian Sample)

	Stats			*T test*			
D.V.	n	M	SD	F	t	df	Sig.
Trus.				0.003	0.295	195	0.768
Sports							
Golf	95	4.93	1.18				
Bask.	102	4.88	1.33				

Hypothesis 3c predicted that Chinese respondents would assign higher ratings of

trustworthiness to an Asian celebrity endorser compared to Canadian respondents.

Chinese respondents were believed to assign higher ratings of trustworthiness toward an

Asian celebrity endorser because the athlete was perceived to be similar to them. In order

to compare the mean difference of trustworthiness level between the two cultural groups

(Canada vs. China), an independent sample t-test was used. As seen in Table 6.11,

Canadian participants scored lower in the trustworthiness scale toward the Asian

celebrity endorser ($M = 4.91$) compared to Chinese participants ($M = 5.07$). However,

there were no significant difference in ratings of trustworthiness ($t (396) = -1.317, \rho$

$< .20$). The findings suggest that Chinese respondents did not perceive higher ratings of

trustworthiness with the Asian sports endorser than the Canadian respondents. Hence, hypothesis 3c is not supported.

Table 6.11: Independent Sample Test for Cultural Difference (Trustworthiness)

	Stats			*T test*			
D.V.	n	M	SD	F	t	df	Sig.
Trus.				0.251	-1.371	396	0.189
Cult.							
CA	197	4.91	1.26				
CHN	201	5.07	1.27				

6.3.4. Source Credibility (Expertise)

Hypothesis 4a predicted that Chinese respondents would perceive greater levels of expertise to a team sports endorser (basketball) compared to an individual sports endorser (golf). People in a collectivistic culture (China) were believed to perceive greater levels of expertise toward a team sports (basketball) player since the athlete carries collectivistic cultural meanings. In order to compare the mean difference of expertise level between the two sports groups (basketball vs. golf) of the Chinese participants, independent samples t-test was adopted. As seen in Table 6.12, Chinese participants surprisingly scored lower in the expertise scale toward a team sports endorser ($M = 5.04$) than an individual sports endorser ($M = 5.15$). There were no significant differences in levels of expertise (t (199) $= 0.706, p < .50$). The findings suggest that Chinese respondents do not perceive greater

levels of expertise with the team sports (basketball) endorser. Hence, hypothesis 4a is not

supported.

Table 6.12: Independent Sample Test for Expertise (Chinese Sample)

D.V.	Stats			T test			
	n	M	SD	F	t	df	Sig.
Expe.				1.447	0.706	199	0.481
Sports							
Golf	99	5.15	1.06				
Bask.	102	5.04	1.21				

Hypothesis 4b predicted that Canadian respondents would perceive greater levels of

expertise to an individual sports endorser (golf) compared to a team sports endorser

(basketball). People in an individualistic culture (Canada) were believed to perceive

greater levels of expertise toward an individual sports (golf) player because the athlete

carries individualistic cultural meanings. In order to compare the mean difference of

expertise level between the two sports groups (golf vs. basketball) among the Canadian

respondents, an independent sample t-test was used. As seen in Table 6.13, Canadian

participants scored slighter higher in the trustworthiness scale toward an individual sports

endorser ($M = 4.55$) than a team sports endorser ($M = 4.51$). There were no significant

differences in levels of trustworthiness (t (195) $= 0.187$, $\rho < .90$). The findings suggest

that Canadian respondents do not perceive greater levels of expertise with the individual

sports (golf) endorser. Hence, hypothesis 4b is not supported.

Table 6.13 Independent Sample Test for Expertise (Canadian Sample)

	Stats			*T test*			
D.V.	n	M	SD	F	t	df	Sig.
Expe.				0.001	0.187	195	0.852
Sports							
Golf	95	4.55	1.30				
Bask.	102	4.51	1.30				

Hypothesis 4c predicted that Chinese respondents would perceive greater levels

expertise to an Asian celebrity endorser compared to Canadian respondents. People in a

collectivistic culture (China) were believed to perceive greater levels of expertise toward

an Asian celebrity endorser because the athlete was perceived to be similar to them. In

order to compare the mean difference of expertise level between the two cultural groups

(Canada vs. China), an independent sample t-test were used. As seen in Table 6.14,

Canadian participants scored much lower when ranking the level of expertise of the

Asian celebrity endorser ($M = 4.53$) compared to Chinese participants ($M = 5.10$). There

was a significant difference in levels of expertise (t (396) = -4.601, $\rho < .000$). The

findings suggest that Chinese respondents perceived greater levels of expertise with the

Asian sports endorser than the Canadian respondents. Hence, hypothesis 4c is supported.

Table 6.14 Independent Sample Test for Cultural Difference (Expertise)

	Stats			*T test*			
D.V.	n	M	SD	F	t	df	Sig.
Expe.				2.918	-4.601	396	0.000
Cult.							
CA	197	4.53	1.30				
CHN	201	5.10	1.14				

6.4. Hypotheses Testing (Stage Two)

For the second stage of the hypotheses testing, identification and the source

credibility model (attractiveness, trustworthiness and expertise) were tested as four

independent variables with the dependent variable being purchase intention. In order to

investigate the cross-cultural impact of identification and source credibility on

consumers' purchase intention, the researchers separated the data into Chinese and

Canadian samples as well as combing the sports conditions due to the insignificant

difference of the sports manipulation in the main study. The findings did not suggest any

significant difference with regards to the type of sports (individual or team) the celebrity

endorser was engaged in. Again, age, gender, and education served as control variables.

6.4.1. Multiple Regression Analysis (Chinese Sample)

According to Ho (2006), a hierarchical multiple regression model has the best

flexibility which allows the researcher to decide the order of entries (independent

variables) with their logical or theoretical considerations. Moreover, "the explanatory

power (in terms of the total amount of variance explained)" would be evaluated easily

based on the order of entries (Ho, 2006, p. 246). The current study aimed to investigate

the impact of four independent variables (identification, attractiveness, trustworthiness,

and expertise) and demographic control variables (age, gender, and education) and their

effect on the dependent variable of purchase intention. A hierarchical multiple regression

analysis was employed in the second stage of the study.

Identification, attractiveness, trustworthiness, and expertise were entered as the

priority entries since these four independent variables were believed to be the strongest

predictors of the dependent variable of purchase intention. The less important control

variables age, gender and education were entered later.

In the model summary table (see Table 6.15), model 1 represents the entry of the four

independent variables including identification and source credibility model variables

(attractiveness, trustworthiness, and expertise). The results indicate that model 1

accounted for 61.7% of the variance (R^2) in the Chinese respondents' purchase intention.

Model 2 represents the entry of the second set of demographic variables (age, gender, and

education), which resulted in an R square change of 0.015. This result indicated that entry

of the three demographic variables increased the explained variance in the Chinese

respondents' purchase intentions by 1.5%. This increase was not found significant by the

F Change test (F (3, 193) = 2.552, $\rho < .06$). These results suggested that the independent

variables including identification and source credibility (attractiveness, trustworthiness,

and expertise) represented a remarkably more powerful set of predictors than the set of

demographic variables (age, gender, and education) for the Chinese sample.

In the ANOVA table (see Table 6.16.), the results indicated that entry of the set of

independent variables (model 1) generated a significant model (F (4, 196) = 78.827,

$\rho < .0000$). Adding the three demographic variables (model 2) resulted in an overall

significant model (F (7, 193) = 47.208, $\rho < .000$).

In Table 6.16, it can be seen that multicollinearity is not a problem for the Chinese

sample since all tolerance values are above 0.10 and all VIF values are below 10.

When examining the β weights, the results revealed that most of the independent

variables (identification, attractiveness, and expertise) were significant predictors of

Chinese respondents' purchase intention ($\rho < .05$); however, the trustworthiness variable

was found to be not significant ($\rho < .15$). Age was the only demographic variable that

was found to be significant in the Chinese sample. Thus, age was an important factor

affecting the endorser's perceived identification and source credibility effect on Chinese

respondents' purchase intention.

Table 6.15: Hypothesis Testing for Stage Two: Model Summary (Chinese Sample)

Model	R	R^2	Adjusted R Square	Change Statistics				
				R^2 Change	F Change	df1	df2	Sig. F Change
1	.785[a]	.617	.609	.617	78.827	4	196	.000
2	.795[b]	.631	.618	.015	2.552	3	193	.057

a. Predictors: (Constant), identification, attractiveness, trustworthiness, expertise
b. Predictors: (Constant), identification, attractiveness, trustworthiness, expertise, age, gender, education
c. Dependent Variable: PI

Table 6.16: Hypothesis Testing for Stage Two: ANOVA (Chinese Sample)

Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	130.644	4	32.661	78.827	.000[a]
	Residual	81.211	196	.414		
	Total	211.855	200			
2	Regression	133.743	7	19.106	47.208	.000[b]
	Residual	78.112	193	.405		
	Total	211.855	200			

a. Predictors: (Constant), identification, attractiveness, trustworthiness, expertise
b. Predictors: (Constant), identification, attractiveness, trustworthiness, expertise, age, gender, education
c. Dependent Variable: PI

6.4.2. Identification and Source Credibility Model on PI (Chinese Sample)

Hypothesis 5a, 6a, 7a, and 8a predicted that higher levels of identification, attractiveness, trustworthiness, and expertise would lead to higher levels of purchase intention for Chinese respondents. Chinese people were believed to have stronger levels of purchase intention if they perceived the celebrity spokesperson as being higher in identification, more attractive, highly trustworthy, and possessing high levels of expertise as an endorser of athletic footwear. Regression analysis was adopted in order to test the hypothesis. As seen in Table 6.17, identification had a positive and significant impact on purchase intention ($\beta = 0.249$, $t = 3.051$, $\rho < .005$). Attractiveness had a positive and significant impact on purchase intention ($\beta = 0.245$, $t = 2.998$, $\rho < .005$). Expertise also had a positive and significant impact on purchase intention ($\beta = 0.230$, $t = 2.777$, $\rho < .010$). However, trustworthiness was positive but insignificant in the model ($\beta = 0.139$, $t = 1.637$, $\rho < .15$).

The findings suggest that higher levels of perceived identification, attractiveness, and expertise are positively and significantly related to purchase intention for the Chinese respondents. Hence, hypothesis 5a, 6a, and 8a are supported.

On the other hand, the findings also suggest that higher levels of perceived trustworthiness is positively but not significantly related to purchase intention for the Chinese respondents. Hence, hypothesis 7a is not supported.

Table 6.17: Hypothesis Testing for Stage Two: Coefficients (Chinese Sample)

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.	Collinearity Statistics	
		B	Std. Error	Beta			Tolerance	VIF
1	(Constant)	.360	.220		1.637	.103		
	XID	.261	.076	.283	3.454	.001	.292	3.420
	XATT	.192	.074	.211	2.596	.010	.295	3.390
	XTRU	.093	.069	.114	1.351	.178	.273	3.660
	XEXP	.225	.075	.250	3.000	.003	.281	3.553
2	(Constant)	.937	.392		2.392	.018		
	XID	.230	.076	.249	3.051	.003	.286	3.495
	XATT	.223	.074	.245	2.998	.003	.286	3.494
	XTRU	.113	.069	.139	1.637	.103	.266	3.753
	XEXP	.207	.075	.230	2.777	.006	.278	3.602
	age	-.012	.006	-.091	-1.991	.048	.925	1.081
	gender	-.141	.094	-.068	-1.503	.134	.938	1.066
	education	.003	.056	.002	.048	.962	.968	1.033

a. Dependent Variable: PI

6.4.3. Multiple Regression Analysis (Canadian Sample)

In order to examine both groups in a similar fashion an identical hierarchical multiple regression analysis was used to analyze data from the Canadian sample.

In the model summary table (see Table 6.18), model 1 represented entry of the four independent variables including identification, attractiveness, trustworthiness, and expertise. The results showed that model 1 accounted for 53.3% of the variance (R^2) in the Canadian respondents' purchase intentions. Model 2 represented entry of the second set of demographic variables (age, gender, and education) and which resulted in an R Square Change of 0.009. This result indicated that entry of the three demographic variables increased the explained variance in the Canadian respondents' purchase intentions by 0.9%. This increase was not significant by the F Change test ($F (3, 189) = 1.284, p < .30$). These results suggested that the independent variables including identification and source credibility model (attractiveness, trustworthiness, and expertise) represented a significantly more powerful set of predictors than the set of demographic variables (age, gender, and education) for the Canadian sample.

In the ANOVA table (see Table 6.19) the results indicated that entry of the set of independent variables (model 1) generated a significant model ($F (4, 192) = 54.730$, $\rho < .000$). Adding the three demographic variables (model 2) resulted in an overall significant model ($F (7, 189) = 31.964, \rho < .000$).

Table 6.18: Hypothesis Testing for Stage Two: Model Summary (Canadian Sample)

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Change Statistics				
				R Square Change	F Change	df1	df2	Sig. F Change
1	.730[a]	.533	.523	.533	54.730	4	192	.000
2	.736[b]	.542	.525	.009	1.284	3	189	.281

d. Predictors: (Constant), identification, attractiveness, trustworthiness, expertise

e. Predictors: (Constant), identification, attractiveness, trustworthiness, expertise, age, gender, education

f. Dependent Variable: PI

Table 6.19: Hypothesis Testing for Stage Two: ANOVA (Canadian Sample)

Model		Sum of Squares	Df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	139.904	4	34.976	54.730	.000[a]
	Residual	122.700	192	.639		
	Total	262.604	196			
2	Regression	142.355	7	20.336	31.964	.000[b]
	Residual	120.249	189	.636		
	Total	262.604	196			

d. Predictors: (Constant), identification, attractiveness, trustworthiness, expertise

e. Predictors: (Constant), identification, attractiveness, trustworthiness, expertise, age, gender, education

f. Dependent Variable: PI

The coefficient table (see Table 6.20) shows that multicollinearity is not a problem for the Canadian sample because all the tolerance values are above 0.10 and all VIF values are below 10.

In examining the β weights, the results indicated that only two of the independent variables (identification and expertise) were positive and significant predictors of Canadian respondents' purchase intentions ($\rho < .05$). Attractiveness and trustworthiness variables were found to be positively related but insignificant ($\rho < .15$) when predicting purchase intention. None of the demographic variables were found to be significant.

6.4.4. Identification and Source Credibility Model on PI (Canadian Sample)

Hypothesis 5b, 6b, 7b, and 8b predicted that higher levels of identification, attractiveness, trustworthiness and expertise would lead to higher levels of purchase intention for the Canadian respondents. Canadian people were believed to have stronger levels of purchase intention if they perceived the celebrity spokesperson as being higher in identification, more attractive, highly trustworthy and possessing high levels of expertise as an endorser of athletic footwear. Regression analysis was adopted in order to test the hypothesis. As seen in Table 6.20, identification had a positive and significant impact on purchase intention ($\beta = 0.480$, $t = 5.773$, $\rho < .000$) as well as expertise ($\beta = 0.140$, $t = 2.382$, $\rho < .05$). However, attractiveness had a positive but insignificant impact

on purchase intention ($\beta = 0.116$, $t = 1.521$, $p < .15$) while trustworthiness also had a positive but insignificant impact on purchase intention ($\beta = 0.113$, $t = 1.335$, $p < .20$).

The findings suggest that higher levels of perceived identification and expertise are positively and significantly related to purchase intention for the Canadian respondents. Hence, hypothesis 5b and 8b are supported. On the other hand, higher levels of perceived attractiveness and trustworthiness are positively but not significantly related to purchase intention for the Canadian respondents. Hence, hypothesis 6b and 7b are not supported.

Table 6.20: Hypothesis Testing for Stage Two: Coefficients (Canadian Sample)

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.	Collinearity Statistics	
		B	Std. Error	Beta			Tolerance	VIF
1	(Constant)	-.118	.258		-.456	.649		
	XID	.472	.079	.493	5.969	.000	.357	2.801
	XATT	.087	.071	.092	1.229	.221	.431	2.318
	XTRU	.099	.077	.108	1.289	.199	.347	2.883
	XEXP	.130	.053	.145	2.468	.014	.703	1.422
2	(Constant)	.484	.402		1.205	.230		
	XID	.460	.080	.480	5.773	.000	.350	2.856
	XATT	.110	.072	.116	1.521	.130	.418	2.391
	XTRU	.104	.078	.113	1.335	.183	.336	2.981
	XEXP	.125	.053	.140	2.382	.018	.698	1.433
	age	-.007	.006	-.065	-1.248	.213	.896	1.117
	gender	-.164	.121	-.071	-1.354	.177	.888	1.126
	education	-.043	.044	-.050	-.983	.327	.953	1.049

a. Dependent Variable: PI

6. 5. *Summary of the Hypothesis Results*

H1a: For Chinese respondents, identification levels with celebrity athlete endorsers will be greater when the celebrity is engaged in team sports than in individual sports.   **NOT SUPPORTED**

H1b: For Canadian respondents, identification levels with celebrity athlete endorsers will be greater when the celebrity is engaged in individual sports than in team sports.   **NOT SUPPORTED**

H1c: For Chinese respondents, identification levels with an Asian celebrity athlete endorser will be greater than Canadians level of identification with an Asian celebrity athlete endorser.   **SUPPORTED**

H2a: Chinese respondents will perceive team sports endorsers as having higher levels of attractiveness than individual sports celebrity endorsers.
    NOT SUPPORTED

H2b: Canadian respondents will perceive individual sports endorsers as having higher levels of attractiveness than team sports celebrity endorsers.
    NOT SUPPORTED

H2c: For Chinese respondents, attractiveness levels with an Asian celebrity athlete endorser will be greater than Canadians level of attractiveness with an Asian celebrity athlete endorser.   **SUPPORTED**

H3a: Chinese respondents will perceive team sports endorsers as having higher levels of trustworthiness than individual sports celebrity endorsers.
    NOT SUPPORTED

H3b: Canadian respondents will perceive individual sports endorsers as having higher levels of trustworthiness than team sports celebrity endorsers.
    NOT SUPPORTED

H3c: For Chinese respondents, trustworthiness levels with an Asian celebrity athlete endorser will be greater than Canadians level of trustworthiness with an Asian celebrity athlete endorser.   **NOT SUPPORTED**

H4a: Chinese respondents will perceive team sports endorsers as having higher levels of expertise than individual sports celebrity endorsers.
    NOT SUPPORTED

H4b: Canadian respondents will perceive individual sports endorsers as having higher levels of expertise than team sports celebrity endorsers.
    NOT SUPPORTED

H4c: For Chinese respondents, expertise levels with an Asian celebrity athlete endorser will be greater than Canadians level of expertise with an Asian celebrity athlete endorser.   **SUPPORTED**

H5a: Higher levels of identification will lead to higher levels of purchase intention for Chinese respondents.   **SUPPORTED**

H5b: Higher levels of identification will lead to higher levels of purchase intention for Canadian respondents.   **SUPPORTED**

H6a: Higher levels of attractiveness will lead to higher levels of purchase intention for Chinese respondents.   **SUPPORTED**

H6b: Higher levels of attractiveness will lead to higher levels of purchase intention for Canadian respondents.   **NOT SUPPORTED**

H7a: Higher levels of trustworthiness will lead to higher levels of purchase intention for Chinese respondents.   **NOT SUPPORTED**

H7b: Higher levels of trustworthiness will lead to higher levels of purchase intention for Canadian respondents.   **NOT SUPPORTED**

H8a: Higher levels of expertise will lead to higher levels of purchase intention for Chinese respondents.   **SUPPORTED**

H8b: Higher levels of expertise will lead to higher levels of purchase intention for Canadian respondents.   **SUPPORTED**

7. Discussion, Limitations, and Recommendations

The purpose of this study was three-fold and included (1) the examination of the

impact that sports dimension (team sports vs. individual sports) of athletic endorsers has

on the perceptions of respondents' levels of identification and source credibility

(attractiveness, trustworthiness, and expertise) as it relates to different cultural

dimensions (collectivism vs. individualism); (2) the exploration of the cultural

differences between Chinese and Canadians in regards to their perception levels of

identification and source credibility (attractiveness, trustworthiness, and expertise)

toward an Asian athlete spokesperson; and (3) the comparison of the differences between

collectivistic Chinese and individualistic Canadians regarding the impact of athlete

endorser's perceived levels of identification and source credibility (attractiveness,

trustworthiness, and expertise) on consumers' purchase intention.

7.1 Discussion of Findings for Hypothesis Testing Stage One

In the test of the first set of hypotheses, the manipulation of sports dimensions

(individual sports vs. team sports) was not successful. This indicates that respondents in

both cultures did not necessarily respond more favourably to athletic endorsers that

possessed characteristics that may be more consistent with their cultural values (play

sports as part of a team as a collectivist or play for oneself as an individualist). More

specifically, the sports dimensions (individual and team) did not remarkably influence the

respondents' levels of identification or perceptions of source credibility (attractiveness, trustworthiness, and expertise) in the Canadian and / or the Chinese samples.

7.1. 1. Perceptions Toward Individual Sports Versus Team Sports Endorser's Perceived Identification in Chinese and Canadian Subject Groups

These results contradict the findings of Brock (1965) and Bandura (1977) who revealed that identification processes depended on the viewer's perception of the similarities of the model to themselves. Specifically, the Chinese (collectivists) did not identify with the team sports (basketball) endorser who was also described as being more collectivistic in the scenario than the golf endorser who was described as being more individualistic. Nor did the Canadian respondents (individualists) identify with the individual sports (golf) endorser more strongly despite being featured as highly individualistic in the scenario. The lack of significant findings may be due to two factors. First, in the current study the athlete endorser had no real world "connections" with the participants and which result in low levels of believability due to the fictitious scenario. According to Burke's (1950) theory, "connections" between the viewers (participants) and characters (endorsers) are critical to the identification process. Since there was little real world "connection" between the participants and the endorser, the participants may have failed to identify with the endorser who carried similar cultural characteristics to them. Second, when Will Chang was a basketball player, both Chinese and Canadians

rated him more favourably. Specifically, Chinese respondents scored an average mean

(identification) of 4.93 and Canadian respondents scored an average mean (identification)

of 4.65 toward Will Chang as a basketball player while, Chinese respondents had 4.70

and Canadian respondents had only 4.32 toward Will Chang as a golf player in the study.

Therefore, the insignificant results of the study may be attributed to basketball being

more popular in both cultures than golf.

7.1. 2. Perceptions Toward Individual Sports Versus Team Sports Endorser's Perceived Source Credibility in Chinese and Canadian Subject Groups

In terms of source credibility (attractiveness, trustworthiness, and expertise), the

study results also suggest that there was no significant difference in the perceptions of

endorser's sports dimensions for between the cultural groups either Chinese or Canadian.

Neither individual sports nor team sports dimension had any significant impact on the

perceptions of Chinese and Canadian participants toward the endorser.

These results contradict the findings of McGuire (1968) who contended similar

characteristics between sources and viewers are critical to influence the viewers'

perception levels toward the sources. In this case, the Chinese (collectivists) should

perceive higher levels of source credibility (attractiveness, trustworthiness, and expertise)

with the team sports (basketball) since the endorser carried similar collectivistic

characteristics to them and the Canadian (individualists) should perceive higher levels of

source credibility (attractiveness, trustworthiness, and expertise) with the individual

sports (golf) endorser because he featured similar individualistic attributes to them.

The discrepancies in the findings may be explained by two reasons. One, team sports

endorsers are not necessary better endorsers for collectivistic countries. For example, Yao

Ming, a Houston Rockets (NBA) superstar, is one of the best basketball players in China

whereas Liu Xiang, a 110metre Hurdler, is the first Chinese athlete to achieve the "triple

crown" in a men's track and field area (World Record Holder, World Champion, and

Olympic Champion). Both of them received numerous invitations to endorse brands

ranging from local to multi-national companies and their endorsements were believed to

be the key to market success among the advertisers (China Sports Today, 2008).

Although China is a typical collectivistic country, the individual sports endorser (Liu

Xiang) receives as much public attention and endorsement invitations as the team sports

endorser (Yao Ming) (China Sports Today, 2008). Moreover, Sidney Crosby, a junior

hockey star, aged 17 years old, signed a multi-year endorsement deal with Gatorade in

2005. Joined with Montreal Hockey Legend Jose Theodore, they are the few Canadian

athletes who have endorsed the sports drinks (USA Today, 2005). Clearly, team sports

players such as, NHL, are not necessary lesser endorsers for individualistic countries (e.g.,

Canada). In short, neither individual sports nor team sports endorsers were necessarily

better endorsers in China and Canada. That is, the sports dimension has an insignificant

effect on the endorsement process with regards to the different cultural dimension.

Another possible explanation for the contradictions is that in the current study the athlete endorser is not real and there are no real world "connections" with the participants and thus it led to low levels of the endorser's credibility.

7.1. 3. Cross-Cultural Comparisons: Perceptions Towards Asian Athlete Endorser

The results indicated that Chinese subjects perceived Will Chang, an Asian athlete endorser, as having higher levels of identification compared to the Canadians' perceptions. The results were in line with Kelman's (1958) identification theory, which suggested viewers of one culture or ethnicity may perceive sources of their own culture or ethnicity more positively than sources of another culture or ethnicity. Further, the results were also consistent with Forehand et al. (1991) study findings that Asian viewers respond favourably to Asian endorsers and Asian-targeted advertisements.

The findings of the current study also suggested that Chinese subjects perceived the Asian athlete endorser as having higher levels of attractiveness and expertise compared to the Canadians' perceptions. The results validated the findings of Brock (1965) and Burnstein et al (1961), who found that advertising viewers might perceive high levels of perceptions (e.g., expertise) toward a source who has the same ethnicity of the viewers.

The result of current study showed that Canadian respondents did not have high levels of trustworthiness for Will Chang. According to Ohanian (1991), trustworthiness was not established as a significant determinant of respondent's intention to purchase

since the advertising viewers do not have high level of trustworthiness toward celebrities

in paid commercials and this finding might be one of the reasons for this result of the

current study.

Moreover, the Chinese subjects did not perceive the Asian athlete endorser as having

higher levels of trustworthiness compared to the Canadians' perceptions. The results can

be partially explained by the Chinese culture value that a person will not be trusted unless

the person has been known for a long time (Cornell, 2008). That is, trust comes slowly to

the Chinese. In the current study, the Chinese respondents did not trust the celebrity

endorser 'Will Chang' since they "met" him by the scenario for the first time and that

was too quick for them to develop trust.

7.2 Discussion of Findings for Hypothesis Testing Stage Two

In terms of the perceived identification effect on purchase intentions, it was found

that both Canadian and Chinese subjects with higher levels of perceived identification

with the athlete endorser resulted in higher levels of purchase intention. The finding is

supported by previous literature. Several studies have shown that an individual's level of

identification with another person has a critical impact on the likelihood of adopting a

behaviour or attitude (Bandura, 1977; Kamin, 1989). More specifically, higher levels of

identification lead to higher levels of adopting a behaviour acted out by the spokesperson

or model engages in.

According to Hofstede (1984), Chinese and Singaporeans have similar collectivistic characteristics whereas Canadians and Americans have similar individualistic attributes. In terms of the perceived source credibility (attractiveness, trustworthiness, and expertise), the results of Chinese sample were consistent with Pornpitakpan's (2003) study findings while the results of the Canadian sample were similar to Ohanian's (1991) study which used an American sample.

The findings of Pornpitakpan's (2003) study indicated all three source dimensions (attractiveness, trustworthiness, and expertise) significantly influence consumers' purchase intention using collectivistic sample (Singaporeans). The results of current study were in line with Pornpitakpan's (2003) study findings that attractiveness and expertise significantly affect consumers' purchase intention using another collectivistic sample (Chinese). Specifically, the results suggest that perceived attractiveness and expertise of an endorser are important factors in persuasion.

However, the trustworthiness dimension was insignificant on affecting consumers' purchase intention. One possible explanation for this result may be that in the current study the athlete endorser, Will Chang, was not known and familiar to the participants, and an unfamiliar person would not be trusted in Chinese culture. Moreover, in Pornpitakpan's (2003) study, all four celebrity endorsers had higher levels of familiarity among the Singaporeans. Whereas in this study the Chinese participants only met the

endorser Will Chang from the scenario and he was very unlikely familiar or known by the Chinese participants.

The earlier findings of Ohanian's (1991) study suggested that expertise was the only dimension of source credibility that affected purchase intention using American sample (individualists). The results of the current study also showed that expertise was the only dimension positively related to purchase intention employing another individualistic sample – the Canadian sample. However, the results of current study were contradictory to many past studies results which suggest positive effects of source attractiveness (Chaiken, 1979; Reingen & Kernan, 1993) and trustworthiness (Deshpande & Kernan, 1993; Kelman, 1977, 1985; Pornpitakpan, 1998, 2003). One possible explanation for the insignificant effects of attractiveness might be the single exposure of the celebrity athlete in the current study. The participants were not familiar with nor know this athlete Will Chang after only one exposure to him. Further, the result of current study also suggested that trustworthiness was an insignificant factor influencing participants' purchase intentions among the Canadian subjects. Based on Ohanian's (1991) findings, trustworthiness was not established as a significant determinant of respondent's intention to purchase since the advertising viewers do not have a high level of trustworthiness toward celebrities in paid commercials.

In short, according to the findings of the present study, source attractiveness and trustworthiness were not important predictors of purchase intention for the Canadian

participants. One possible reason to explain this might be that the endorser product of athletic shoes might not be an attractiveness related product in Canada (Petty & Cacioppo, 1986).

7.3 Contribution

Selecting a celebrity athlete endorser in advertising can be risky and challenging, particularly in a global market setting (Choi, Lee, & Kim, 2005; McCracken, 1989; Money, Shimp, & Sakano, 2006; Pornpitakpan, 2003; Till & Shimp, 1998; Zhang & Gelb, 1996). Identification is believed to have a critical impact on this communication process (Bandura, 1986; Basil, 1996; Brock, 1965; Kelman, 1961). A great deal of research has investigated the identification effect on consumers' purchase intentions (Brock, 1965; Burnstein et al., 1961; Deshpande et al., 1986; Ellis, McCullough, & Chin, 1985: Gerard & Hoyt, 1974; Hirschman, 1981; Madrigal, 2001; Williams & Qualls, 1989). It is important to investigate identification with a spokesperson on a cross cultural level and it effect on the viewer's purchase intention. The current study has examined the effect of identification in cross cultural and comparative setting using a Canadian and Chinese sample. This study also contributes to a larger understanding of how people in Canadian and Chinese societies respond to marketing communications.

In addition, a viewer's perceptions of a spokesperson's source credibility is also claimed to have an important influence on the persuasion process. Many studies

recommend the notion that source credibility plays a vital role in the persuasion process (Atkin & Block, 1983; Freiden, 1984; Hovland, Janis, & Kelley, 1953; Kamins et al., 1989; McCracken, 1989; MaGuire, 1958; Ohanian, 1990, 1991; Walker, Langmeyer, & Langmeyer, 1992). This study is among the first to compare the impact source credibility has on consumers' purchase intentions between Chinese and Canadians, regarding the celebrity athlete endorser in particular. The study findings reveal that source attractiveness might be more important as a part of source expertise to Chinese advertising viewers.

Further, this study is also among the small body of research investigating the effects of individualism / collectivism of respondents and the effect of perceived perceptions (identification, attractiveness, trustworthiness, and expertise) of the spokesperson has on consumers' purchase intention. Also it is probably the first in the literature comparing the individualistic Canadian consumers and the collectivistic Chinese consumers regarding the effect of spokesperson's perceived identification has on viewers' purchase intention. Last but not least, this study tested the cross-cultural generalization of the notion (Deshpande & Kernan, 1993; Kelman, 1977; Pornpitakpan, 1998, 2003) that suggests all three source credibility dimensions, attractiveness, trustworthiness, and expertise have positive and significant effect on viewers' purchase intention.

A more encouraging finding of this study is the notion that higher levels of identification will lead to higher levels of consumers' purchase intentions for both

Chinese and the Canadian regardless of consumers' age, gender, and education

background. It contributes to the literature that identification might be the most important

factor determining the success of advertising in today's global environment.

Ethnicity of an athlete endorser proved to be an important influencing factor when

determining the perceived identification and source credibility levels of the respondents

(China and Canada). Specifically, Chinese respondents had significantly higher levels of

perceived identification ($M = 4.82$ vs. $M = 4.50$), attractiveness ($M = 4.84$ vs. $M = 4.15$),

and expertise ($M = 5.10$ vs. $M = 4.53$) toward the Asian athlete endorser compared to the

Canadian participants. However, there was no significantly different perception of

trustworthiness levels for both the Chinese and the Canadian respondents. The results of

this study are in line with the evidence from other studies (Despande et al., 1986; Ellis,

McCullough, & Chin, 1985: Hirschman, 1981; Saenz & Agnirre, 1991; Williams &

Qualls, 1989) in that individuals are more likely to accept testimony from sources similar

to themselves rather than the dissimilar ones. Moreover, the results also fit well with

Whittlers' (1991) study findings which suggested Asian viewers respond more positively

to Asian endorsers.

Lastly, in selecting an athlete endorser, there is no significant difference between

endorsers who play individual or team sports. However, identification, perceived

expertise, and perhaps ethnicity may be more important in the selecting process. In future

research, all those factors (identification, expertise, and ethnicity) should all be tested together in order to find out which has the greatest impact.

7.4 Limitations and Future Research

As in all research, limitations exist in the current study. First, only an Asian athlete endorser was used in the study due to limited time and financial considerations. To match the equivalence for the cross-cultural comparison, a Caucasian athlete endorser should be used in another study as well in order to make more accurate comparisons. Canadians might perceive a white athlete endorser with higher levels of identification, attractiveness, trustworthiness, and expertise. Chinese respondent might not perceive a white athlete endorser with lower levels of identification, attractiveness, trustworthiness, and expertise. Therefore, it is important to add a Caucasian athlete endorser in the further research design in order to test the effect of an athlete's appearance and make a better comparison between two ethnicities (e.g., Asian vs. Caucasian).

The second limitation was regarding the incomparability between the participants in the pretest and the main study. The pretest was conducted in a Western Canadian university with the gender split was close to equal. The mean age was 21.2, which was much lower than the main study (see Table 4.1). In the main study, the total number of the participants had a mean age of 33.5 years for both the Chinese respondents (age $M =$ 32.30) and Canadian respondents (age $M =$ 35.29) who were recruited from an online

panel (Zoomerang). According to Atkin and Block's (1983) study findings, the younger

samples have notably more favorable attitudes to a product endorsed by a celebrity,

especially professional athletes, while the older samples have no significant preferences

to a product endorsed by either a celebrity or a non-celebrity endorser. Hence, the age

factor should be a more important concern in the main study. Therefore, future studies

should consider selecting participants from different age groups.

Thirdly, the sports dimensions were limited to only two sports (golf and basketball).

It remains unknown what the test results would be if more sports dimensions, such as,

hockey, swimming, gymnastics, and tennis, were introduced in the study. Future research

should carefully consider the selection of an athlete's sports dimension because different

sports might have various popularity levels among different countries / cultures.

The fourth limitation was the translation issue. Although the translation equivalence

problem can be minimized through careful verification (e.g., translation and back

translation), the perfect translation equivalence is almost unrealistic (Pornpitakpan, 2003).

The psychometric properties of the scale might be different after the scale is translated

into another language and tested in a different culture. For example, a few participants of

the pre-test had doubted the reasonability of several source credibility items due to their

cultural perceptions. More specifically, they could not understand the word "elegant" in

the Chinese version of the scale and so this item was deleted from the source

attractiveness scale. Pornpitakpan (2003) claimed that achieving conceptual equivalence

is probably the most complicated part of the translation process since people from different cultures have their unique perceptions to the world and to the surrounding objects.

Future research should replicate the basic design by using different or multiple advertising media including specialized magazines (e.g., sports illustrated), newspaper, and television ads. According to Leong, Huang, and Stanners (1998), newspaper and magazine are considered as rational objectives while TV commercials is considered emotional objective. These media attributes (e.g., rational and emotional factors) may lead to different results for endorsement studies since participants' perception level might be influenced.

Moreover, since more and more celebrity endorsement is used in marketing (Erdogan, 2005; Okonkwo, 2008), it is important to keep filling the gaps in the celebrity athlete endorsement literature, especially cross-cultural comparisons. The current study compared only Canadian and Chinese subjects and future research should do replications using other cultures because each culture has its own profile (Hofstede, 1980) and the results might be different within the same research settings.

Lastly, real celebrity athletes with gender differences might be used and tested in future studies as the current study has the limitation of using a fictitious design and a fictitious athlete endorser. Participants might have different perceptions toward a real athlete. Also, athlete endorser's gender might also affect the levels of perceptions.

8. Conclusions and Implications

The objective of this research was to examine the perceptions of Canadian and Chinese respondents toward a celebrity sports endorser. This study was among the first cross-cultural studies to examine viewers' perceptions of identification, attractiveness, trustworthiness, and expertise of a celebrity endorser. The present research will add to the body of literature in cross-cultural marketing communications and identification research. This study has the potential to be beneficial to advertising practitioners given the growing trend of globalization and to academics as the study of cross-cultural differences has become a topic of growing importance (Zhang, Lam, & Connaughton, 2003).

The findings may provide advertising professionals some direction with regards to the selection of a celebrity athlete endorser. First, marketers should be aware that the type of sport (team or individual) played has little impact on the cultural orientation of the viewer. Viewers from collectivistic countries did not consider team sports players more favorable than individual sports players and the opposite was true for viewers from individualistic societies. However, the results of the study found that the ethnicity of an athlete endorser was important in the viewer's ratings with regards to their ability to identify with the spokesperson and the favorability of their ratings with regards to the endorsers as a credible source. Chinese participants were able to better identify with the Chinese athlete endorser than the Canadian participants and they also had higher ratings on the source credibility items. From a managerial perspective, ethnicity of a

spokesperson should be a major concern when planning a successful advertising campaign where a celebrity athlete spokesperson is concerned. This finding is consistent with that of Whittler (1989, 1991).

Second, marketers should realize that the perceived identification of an athlete spokesperson has a significant effect on influencing consumer's purchase intention. Historically, marketer practitioners typically chose a celebrity endorser based on the celebrity's attractiveness, expertise, and trustworthiness (Baker & Gilbert, 1977; Hovland & Weiss, 1951; Hovland et al., 1953; Joseph, 1982; McGuire, 1968, 1985; Petty & Cacioppo, 1980) as well as general popularity; however, little research has investigated the influence of perceived identification. The findings suggest that perceived identification might be the most influential factor when rating the favorableness of the celebrity endorser as well as the intention to purchase the product endorsed by the celebrity. Thus, advertising practitioners should consider their target market and choose a celebrity spokesperson with potentially higher levels of identification with the target viewers in order to be successful. This conclusion is in line with Brock (1961) and Burnstein et al.'s (1961) research that higher levels of identification will result in a more positive purchase behavior regarding the endorsed product or service.

Third, although many past studies results suggest all three source credibility dimensions, attractiveness (Chaiken, 1979; Reingen & Kernan, 1993), trustworthiness (Deshpande & Kernan, 1993; Kelman, 1977, 1985; Pornpitakpan, 1998, 2003), and

expertise (Ohanian, 1990, 1991; Pornpitakpan, 1998, 2003) have positive and significant effects on consumer's purchase intention, the current study results indicate that this may not be the case for Chinese and Canadian respondents. Advertising practitioners may want to focus on source attractiveness and expertise of an athlete endorser in the Chinese market. This conclusion is also support by Pornpitakpan (2003). Further, source expertise should be the key concern of selecting a celebrity spokesperson for the Canadian segment. This finding is consistent with that of Ohanian (1990, 1991) earlier findings using an American sample.

Clearly, more research is necessary before the confirmation and generalization of the findings; however, the current study has led an empirical path to further discussion and future research. More importantly, advertising practitioners may need to reconsider whether the popularity of an athlete endorser or the ethnicity and perceived identification of an athlete endorser is a more critical factor in the process of selecting an athlete endorser, in the Chinese and Canadian market in particular.

References

Aaker, J., & Maheswaran, D. (1997). The effect of cultural orientation on Persuasion [Electronic version]. *Journal of Consumer Research*, *24*(3), 315-328.

Agrawal, J., & Kamakura, W. A. (1995). The economic worth of celebrity endorsers: An event study analysis [Electronic version]. *Journal of Marketing, 56*(3), 56-62.

Applebaum, R. F., & Anatol, K. W. E. (1972). The factor structure of source credibility as a function of the speaking situation [Electronic version]. *Speech Monographs*, *39*, 216-222.

Atkin, C., & Block, M. (1983). Effectiveness of celebrity endorsers [Electronic version]. *Journal of Advertising Research, 23*(1)*, 57-61.*

Back, K. (1951). The exertion of influence through social communication [Electronic version]. *Journal of Abnormal and Social Psychology, 46,* 9-24.

Baker, M. J., & Churchill, Jr. G. A. (1977). The impact of physically attractive models on advertising evaluations [Electronic version]. *Journal of Marketing Research*, *14*(4), 538-555.

Bandura, A. (1977). *Social learning theory.* Englewood Cliffs, New Jersey: Prentice Hall.

Bandura, A. (1986). *Social foundations of thought and action: A social-cognitive theory.* Englewood Cliffs, New Jersey: Prentice Hall.

Bannister, B. (1986). Performance outcome feedback and attribution feedback: Interactive effects on recipient responses [Electronic version]. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, *71*(2), 203-210.

Basil, M. D. (1996). Identification as a mediator of celebrity effect [Electronic version]. *Journal of Broadcasting & Electronic Media*, 40, 478-495.

Belk, R.W., & Bryce, W. J. (1986). Materialism and individual determinism in US and Japanese television advertising [Electronic version]. *Advances in Consumer Research*, 13, 568-572.

Berlo, D., Lemert, J., & Mertz, R. (1969). Dimension for evaluating the acceptability of message sources [Electronic version]. *Public Opinion Quarterly*, *33*(4), 563-576.

Brock, T. C. (1965). Communicator recipient similarity and decision change. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 1*(6), 650-654.

Brown, W. J., Basil, M. D., & Bocarnea, M. C. (2003). The influence of famous athletes on health beliefs and practices: Mark McGire, child abuse prevention, and androstenedione [Electronic version]. *Journal of Health Communication*, 8(1), 41-57.

Burke, K. (1950). *A rhetoric of motives.* Englewood Cliffs, New Jersey: Prentice Hall.

Burnstein, E., Stotland, E., & Zander, A. (1961). Similarity to a model and self-evaluation [Electronic version]. *Journal of Abnormal and Social Psychology*, *62*(3), 257-264.

Cashmore, E., & Parker, A. (2003). One David Bechham? Celebrity, masculinity, and the sccerati [Electronic version]. *Journal of Advertising, 13*(1)*,* 17-23.

Chaiken, S. (1979). Communicator physical attractiveness and persuasion. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 37*, 1387-1397.

Chang, C. C. (2006). Seeing the small picture: Ad-self versus ad-culture congruency in international advertising [Electronic version]. *Journal of Business and Psychology*, *20*(3), 445-465.

Choi, S. M., Lee, L., & Kim, H. (2005). Lesson from the rich and famous: A cross-cultural comparison of celebrity endorsement in advertising [Electronic version]. *Journal of Advertising, 34*(2), 85-98.

Cooper, D. R., & Schindler, P. S. (2006). *Business Research Methods (9 ed.)*. The McGraw-Hill Companies, Inc, New York, NY: McGraw-Hill.

Copeland, R. P., & McCarville, R. E. (1994). Understanding sport sponsorship through exchange theory [Electronic version]. *Journal of Sport Management*, *8*, 102-114.

China's highest-paid athletes. (2008). *China sports today*. **Retrieved September 24, 2008, from http://www.chinasportstoday.com/en/blog/item/183/chinas_highestpaid_athlete**

Darnell, S. C., & Sparks, R. (2007). Meaning transfer in sports news and sponsorship: Promoting Canadian olympic triathlete Simon Whitfield [Electronic version]. *International Journal of Sport Marketing & Sponsorship*, *8*(20), 159.

Deutsch, M., & Gerard, H. B. (1955). A study of normative and informational social influences upon individual judgment [Electronic version]. *Journal of Abnormal and Social Psychology, 51,* 629-636.

Ellis, S. J., McCullough, M. W., & Chin, T. T. (1985). Cultural values and behaviour: Chineseness with geographic boundaries [Electronic version]. *Advances in Consumer Research, 12,* 126-128.

Erdogan, B. Z. (1999). Celebrity endorsement: A literature review [Electronic version]. *Journal of Marketing Management*, *15*(4), 291-314.

Erdogan, B. Z. (2005). Reasons for using celebrity endorsers [Electronic version]. *Admap*, *40*(3), 38-40.

Erdogan, B. Z., Baker, M. J., & Tagg, S. (2001). Selecting celebrity endorsers: The practitioner's perspective [Electronic version]. *Journal of advertising research*, *41*, May/June, 39-48.

Fernadez, D. R., Carson, D. S., Stepina, L. P., & Nicholoson, J. D. (1997). Hofstede's country classification 25 years later. *The Journal of Social Psychology, 137*, 43-54.

Fink, J. S., Cunningham, J. S., & Kensicki, L. J. (2004). Using athletes as endorsers to sell women's sport: Attractiveness vs. expertise [Electronic version]. *Journal of Sports Management*, *18*, 350-67.

Fireworker, R., & Friedman, H. (1977). The effects of endorsements on product Evaluation [Electronic version]. *Decision Sciences*, *8*(3), 576-583.

Fisher, R. J., & Wakefield, K. (1998). Factors leading to group identification: A field study of winners and losers [Electronic version]. *Psychology & Marketing, 15*, 23.

Forehand, M. R., & Deshpande, R. (1984). What we see makes us who we are: Priming ethnic self-awareness and advertising response [Electronic version]. *Journal of Marketing Research*, *38*(3), 336-348.

Forehand, M. R., & Deshpande, R. (2001). What we see makes us who we are: Priming ethnic self-awareness and advertising response [Electronic version]. *Journal of Marketing Research, 38*, 336-348.

Forehand, M. R., Deshpande, R., & Reed, A. (2002). Identity Salience and the influence of differential activation of the social self-schema on advertising response [Electronic version]. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, *87*(6), 1086-1099.

Frazee, G., Gadomski, B., Ghahremani, P., Hall, M., Gilchrist, D., Gill, P., et al. (2003). Advertising with celebrity: What's really being sold? *bgsu.edu*. **Retrieved September 13, 2008, from http://www.bgsu.edu/departments/tcom/faculty/ha/sp2003/gp4/gp4.pdf**

Frieden, J. B. (1984). Advertising spokesperson effects: An examination of endorser type and gender on two audiences [Electronic version]. *Journal of Advertising Research*, *24*, (10/11), 33-41.

Friedman, H., & Friedman, L. (1979). Endorser effectiveness by product type [Electronic version]. *Journal of Advertising Research*, *19*, 63-71.

Gerard, H. B., & Hoyt, M. F. (1974). Distinctiveness of social categorization in attitude toward in-group members [Electronic version]. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 29*, 836-842.

Goldsmith, R. E., Lafferty, B. A., & Newell, S. J. (2000). The impact of corporate credibility and celebrity credibility on consumer reaction to advertisements and brand [Electronic version]. *Journal of Advertising*, *3*, 3.

Han, S. P., & Shavitt, S. (1994). Persuasion and culture: Advertising appeals in Individualistic and Collectivistic societies [Electronic version]. *Journal of Experimental Social Psychology*, *30*(4), 326-50.

Hirschman, E., & Holbrook, M. B. (1981). Symbolic consumer behaviour [Electronic version]. *Journal of Marketing, 46*(3), 92.

Ho, R. (2006). *Handbook of univariate and multivariate data analysis and interpretation with SPSS*. Chapman & Hall/CRC.

Ho, S. C. (2001). Growing consumer power in China: Some lessons for managers. *Journal of International Marketing, 9*(1), 64-83.

Hofstede, G. (1980). *Culture's consequences: International differences in work related values.* Beverly Hills, CA: Sage.

Hofstede, G., & Bond, M. H. (1984). "Hofstede's culture dimensions: An independent validation using Rokeach's value survey" [Electronic version]. *Journal of Cross-Cultural Psychology,* 15, pp. 417-433.

Hovland, C. I., Janis, I. L., & Kelley, H. H. (1953). *Communication and persuasion*. New Haven, CT: Yale University Press.

Hovland, C. I., & Weiss, W. (1951). The influence of source credibility on communication effectiveness [Electronic version]. *Public Opinion Quarterly*, *15*(4), 635-50.

Jeon, J. O., & Beatty, S. E. (2002). Comparative advertising effectiveness in different national cultures [Electronic version]. *Journal of Business Research, 55*(11), 907-913.

Joseph, W. B. (1982). The credibility of physically attractive communicators: A review [Electronic version]. *Journal of Advertising*, *11*(3), 15-24.

Jung, J. M. (2002). *The interactive impact of culture and individual characteristics on ethnical decision-making process, criteria, and judgmental outcomes: A cross-cultural comparison between South Korea and United States.* University of Cincinnati.

Junior Star Crosby Pens Endorsement Deal with Gatorade. (2005). *USA today*. **Retrieved January 24, 2009, from http://www.usatoday.com/sports/hockey/juniors/2005-07-05-crosby-gatorade_x. htm**

Kahle, L. R., & Homer, P. M. (1985). Physical attractiveness of the celebrity endorser: A social adaptation perspective [Electronic version]. *Journal of Consumer Research (pre-1986), 11*(4), 954.

Kamins, M. A. (1990). An investigation into the "match-up" hypothesis in celebrity advertising: When beauty may be only skin deep[Electronic version]. *Journal of Advertising*, *19*(1), 4-13.

Kamins, M. A., Brand, M. J., Hoeke, S. A., & Moe, J. C. (1989). Two-sided versus one-sided celebrity endorsements: The impact on advertising effectiveness and credibility [Electronic version]. *Journal of Advertising*, *18*, 4-10.

Kamins, M. A., & Kamal, G. (1994). Congruence between spokesperson and product type: A matchup hypothesis perspective [Electronic version]. *Psychology & Marketing*, *11*(6), 569.

Kelman, H. C. (1961). Processes of opinion change [Electronic version]. *Public Opinion Quarterly*, *25*, 57-78.

Kleine, R. E., Kleine, S. S., & Kernan, J. B. (1993). Mundane consumption and the self: A social identity perspective [Electronic version]. *Journal of Consumer Psychology, 2*, 209-235.

Kulkarni, S. A., & Gaulkar, S. U. (2008). Impact of celebrity endorsement on overall brand. *Indianmba.com*. **Retrieved September 5, 2008, from http://www.indianmba.com/Occasional_Papers/OP88/op88.html**

Lafferty, B. A., & Goldsmith, R. E. (1999). Corporate credibility's role in consumers' attitudes and purchase intentions when a high versus a low credibility endorser is used in the Ad [Electronic version]. *Journal of Business Research*, *44*, 109-116.

Lafferty, B. A., Goldsmith, R. E., & Newell, S. J. (2002). The dual credibility model: The influence of corporate and endorser credibility on attitudes and purchase intentions [Electronic version]. *Journal of Marketing*, *Summer*, 1-12.

Langmeyer, L., & Walker, M. (1991). A first step to identify the meaning in celebrity endorsers [Electronic version]. *Advances in Consumer Research*, *18*(1), 364.

Leong, E. K. F., Huang, X., & Stanners, P. (1998). Comparing the effectiveness of the website with traditional media [Electronic version]. *Journal of Advertising Research*, *38*(5), 44-51.

Levitt, T. (1983). The globalization of markets [Electronic version]. *Harvard Business Review*, *61*(2), 92-102.

Mathur, L. K., Mathur, I., & Rangan, N. (1997). The wealth effects associated with a celebrity endorser: The Michael Jordan phenomenon [Electronic version]. *Journal of Advertising Research*, *37*(3), 67-73.

Madrigal, R. (2001). Social identity effects in belief attitude intentions hierarchy: Implications for corporate sponsorship [Electronic version]. *Psychology & Marketing, 18*, 145-165.

McCracken, G. (1986). Culture and consumption: A theoretical account of the structure and movement of the cultural meaning of consumer goods [Electronic version]. *Journal of Consumer Research* (1989), *13*(1), 71.

McCracken, G. (1989). Who is the celebrity endorser? Cultural foundations of the endorsement process [Electronic version]. *Journal of Consumer Research*, *16*(3), 310-321.

McCroskey, J. C. (1966). Scales for the measurement of ethos [Electronic version]. *Speech Monographs*, *33*, 65-72.

McGuire, W. J. (1968). The nature of attitudes and attitude change in handbook of social psychology. In G. Lindzey & E. Aronson (Eds.). MA: Addison Wesley, 136-314.

McGuire, W. J. (1976). Some internal psychological factors influencing consumer choice [Electronic version]. *Journal of Consumer Research, 2*, 319-320.

McGuire, W. (1985) Attitudes and attitude change [Electronic version]. *Handbook of social psychology*. New York, Random House, 233-346.

Mu, M. (2006). *Price-quality schema orientation and market efficiency perceptions: A cross cultural and intercultural study of Canadians and Chinese*. Unpublished master's thesis, University of Lethbridge, Lethbridge, Alberta, Canada.

Murrell, A. J., & Dietz, B. (1992). Fan support of sport teams: The effect of a common group identity [Electronic version]. *Journal of Sports & Exercise Psychology, 14*(1), 28-39.

Newell, S. J., & Goldsmith, R. E. (2001). The development of a scale to measure perceived corporate credibility [Electronic version]. *Journal of Business Research*, *52*(3), 235-247.

Nunnally, J. C., & Bernstein, I. H. (1994). *Psychometric theory* (3rd ed.). New York, NY: McGraw-Hill.

Ohanian, R. (1990). Construction and validation of a scale to measure celebrity endorsers' perceived expertise, trustworthiness, and attractiveness [Electronic version]. *Journal of Advertising, 19*(3), 39.

Ohanian, R. (1991). The impact of celebrity spokespersons' perceived image on consumers' intention to purchase [Electronic version]. *Journal of Advertising Research, 31*(1), 46.

Okazaki, S., & Mueller, B. (2007). Cross-cultural advertising research: Where we have been and where we need to go [Electronic version]. *International Marketing Review*, *24*(5), 499-518.

Okonkwo, U. (2006). Luxury brands & celebrities: An enduring branding romance. *brand channel.com*. **Retrieved September 22, 2008, from http://www.brandchannel.com/print_page.asp?ar_id=1234&section=paper**

Patzer, G. L., (1983). Source credibility as a function of communicator physical attractiveness [Electronic version]. *Journal of Business Research*. *11*, 229-241.

Penaloza, L. N. (1989). Immigrant consumer acculturation. *Advances in Consumer Research, 16*, 110-118.

Petty, R. E., & Cacioppo, J. T. (1981). *Attitudes and persuasion: Classic and contemporary approaches*. Dubuque, IA: Wm. C. Brown Company Publishers.

Petty, R. E., Cacioppo, J. T., & Schumann, D. (1983). Central and peripheral routes to advertising effectiveness: The moderating role of involvement [Electronic version]. *Journal of Consumer Research, 10*(2), 135-146.

Pornpitakpan, C. (1998). The effect of cultural adaptation on perceived trustworthiness [Electronic version]. *Journal of Global Marketing*, *11*(3), 41.

Pornpitakpan, C., & Francis, J. N. P. (2001). The effect of cultural differences, source expertise, and argument strength on persuasion: An experiment with Canadians and Thais [Electronic version]. *Journal of International Consumer Marketing*, *13*(1), 77-101.

Pornpitakpan, C. (2003). Cross-cultural differences in the effect of ad repetition and ad size: Experiments with Americans, Germans, and Singaporeans [Electronic version]. *Journal of Euro-Marketing*, *13*(2), p49.

Priluck, R., & Till, B. (2003). The role of contingency awareness, involvement, and the need for cognition in attitude formation. *Journal of Academy of Marketing Science*, *32*(3), 329-344. [Electronic version]. *Journal of Euro-Marketing*, *13*(2), p49.

Reingen, P., & Kernan, J. (1993). Social perception and interpersonal influence: Some consequences of the physical attractiveness stereotype in a personal selling setting [Electronic version]. *Journal of Consumer Psychology*, *2*(1), 25.

Shank, M. D. (2004). *Sports marketing: A strategic perspective*. Upper Saddle River, NJ: Prentice Hall Inc.

Sherman, S. P. (1985). When you wish upon a star [Electronic version]. *Fortune, 18*.

Stuart, E. W., Shimp, T. A., & Engle, R. W. (1987). Classical conditioning of consumer attitudes: Four experiments in an advertising context [Electronic version]. *The Journal of Consumer Research, 14*, 334-349.

Sukhdial, A., Aiken, D., & Kahle, L. (2002). Are you old school? A scale for measuring sports fans' old-school orientation [Electronic version]. *Journal of Advertising Research*, *42*(4), 71-81.

Tellis, G. J. (1998). *Advertising and sales promotion strategy.* Reading: Addision-Wesley Educational Publisher Inc.

Till, B. D., (1998). Using celebrity endorsers effectively: Lessons from associative learning [Electronic version]. *The Journal of Product and Brand Management*, *7*, (5) 400-410.

Till, B. D., & Busler, M. (1998). Matching products with endorsers: Attractiveness versus expertise [Electronic version]. *Journal of Consumer Marketing*, *15*(6), 576-586.

Till, B., & Busler, M. (2000). The match-up hypothesis: Physical attractiveness, expertise, and the role of fit on brand attitude, purchase intent and brand beliefs [Electronic version]. *Journal of Advertising*, *24*(3), 1-13.

Till, B. D., & Shimp, T. A. (1998). Endorsers in advertising: The case of negative celebrity information [Electronic version]. *Journal of Advertising*, *27*(1), 67-82.

Till, B. D., Stanley, S. M., & Priluck, R. (2008). Classical conditioning and celebrity endorsers: An examination of belongingness and resistance to extinction [Electronic version]. *Psychology and Marketing*, *25*(2), 179-196.

Toffoli, R. (1997). *The moderating effect of culture on cognitive responding mechanisms toward advertising message sidedness, unpublished dissertation* [Electronic version]. John Molson School of Business, Concordia University, Montreal.

Tommy, E. W. (1989). Viewers' processing of actor's race and message claims in advertising stimuli [Electronic version]. *Psychology & Marketing (1986-1998), 6*(4), 287.

Tommy, E. W. (1991).The effects of actor's race in commercial advertising: Review and extension [Electronic version]. *Journal of Advertising, 20*(1), 54-60.

Tse, D. K., Belk, R. W., & Zhou, N. (1989). Becoming a consumer society: A longitudinal and cross-cultural content analysis of print ads from Hong Kong, the People's Republic of China, and Taiwan. *The Journal of Consumer Research, 15*(4), 457-472.

Walker, M., Langmeyer, L., & Langmeyer, D. (1992). Celebrity endorsers: Do you get what you pay for [Electronic version]? *Journal of consumer marketing*, *9*(2), 69-76.

Watkins, H. S., & Liu, R. (1996). Collectivism, individualism and in-group membership: Implications for consumer complaining behaviors in multicultural context [Electronic version]. *Journal of International Consumer Marketing*, *8*, 69-96.

Williams, J. D., & Qualls, W. J. (1989). Middle-class black consumers and the intensity of ethnic identification. Special issue: Psychology, marketing, and the black community [Electronic version]. *Psychology & Marketing*, *6*(4), 263.

Whitehead, J. L. (1968). Factors of source credibility [Electronic version]. *Quarterly Journal of Speech, 54*(1), 59-63.

Whittler, T. E. (1989). Viewer's processing of actor's race and message claims in advertising stimuli [Electronic version]. *Journal of Social Psychology, 6*(4), 287-309.

Whittler, T. E. (1991). The effects of actors' race in commercial advertising: Review and extension [Electronic version]. *Journal of Advertising 31*, 37-46.

Whittler, T. E., Calantone, R. J., & Young, M. J. (1989). Strength of ethnic affiliation: Examining black identification with black culture [Electronic version]. *Journal of Social Psychology, 3*(2), 27-39.

Ybarra, O., & Trafimow, D. (1998). How priming the private self or collective self affects the relative weights of attitudes and subjective norms [Electronic version]. *Personality and Social Psychology Bulletin, 24*, 362-370.

Yoon, K., Kim, C., & Kim, M. (1998). A cross-cultural comparison of the effects of source credibility on attitudes and behavioral intentions [Electronic version]. *Mass Communication & Society*, *1*(3/4), 153.

Yu, C. (2005) Athlete endorsement in the international sports industry: A case study of David Beckham [Electronic version]. *International Journal of Sports Marketing & Sponsorship, 6*(3), 189-199.

Zhang, J. J., Lam, E. T., & Connaughton, D. P. (2003). General market demand variables associated with professional sports consumption [Electronic version]. *International Journal of Sport Marketing and Sponsorship*, *5*(1), 33-55.

Zhang, Y., & Gelb, B. D. (1996). Matching advertising appeals to culture: The influence of product use conditions [Electronic version]. *Journal of Advertising*, *25*(3), 29-46.

Advertising Scenario

E Generation is a newly developed sports brand based in US whose target market are mainly youth and young adult. You may not have heard of this incredible up and coming young athlete, but is being considered to endorse E Generation athletic shoes.

Please read through the following information regarding this athlete and answer the following questions with regards to how you perceive him.

Will Chang has shown excellence in both academics and sports.

He started playing golf at the age of six and began weekly private coaching when he was about eight. In 2007, Chang was named one of the "top ten junior athletes of the year".

Shortly after receiving the award, he attracted media attention worldwide.

Scenario One: Endorser as a golf (individual sports) player featuring individualistic characteristics.

Chang has always been self determined and has practiced on his own without encouragement. He likes to wear hats (designed by himself) for important games. Chang also practices with some AGP elite players during their off season and he never fails to challenge them. Since age 16, he has lived by himself in order to focus on golf. His dream is to become the top ranked golf player in the world.

Scenario Two: Endorser as a basketball (team sports) player featuring collectivistic characteristics.

Chang has always been a good team player. He helps his teammates whenever they ask and is even willing to spend his spare time helping. In the summer of 2007, he gave up a valuable opportunity to attend NBA summer camp in order to train with his team during the summer. Although his position is small forward, his full court vision and collective attitude allow him to be a very good playmaker and he currently holds the highest assist record (per season) for his school. His dream is to take his team to the high school championship.

背景简介

E-Generation 是一个美资的新兴体育品牌，以青少年和青年人的消费群体为其主要目

标市场。张希，一颗冉冉升起的体育新星即将成为 E-Generation 的品牌代言人。

请仔细阅读以下关于张希的背景简介并就你的个人看法回答后面的问题。

张希是一个在学习和体育方面都很出色的人才。

他从六岁起就开始打高尔夫球/篮球，八岁时还聘请

了私人教练对他进行每周一次的特训。

2007 年他被授予年度十佳青年运动员的称号。

在获奖以后，他立即吸引了各方媒体的关注。

一. 高尔夫球:张希总是自愿自觉的进行各种训练。他喜欢在重要的比赛中戴上他自

己设计的帽子。在顶尖职业球员休季时，张希就和他们一起练习并不停的向他们挑战。

为了能专心训练，他从十六岁起就开始独自生活并拒绝参加一切的团体活动。他的梦想

是成为世界上最顶尖的高尔夫球手。

二. 篮球:张希一直是个非常具有团队合作精神的球员。在训练中，只要他的队友开

口，任何时候他都愿意提供帮助，甚至不惜在训练后付出他的个人时间。2007 年的暑

假，他为了配合球队的夏训毅然放弃了参加 NBA 夏季训练营的宝贵机会。尽管他场上

打的位置是小前锋，出色的大局观和无私的球风使他成为一个很好的组织者，至今他还

保持着全校的赛季最高助攻记录。他的梦想是带领球队夺得高校联赛的冠军。

APPENDIX C

individualism vs. collectivism Scale

Please answer using the following scale:

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
strongly			neutral			strongly
disagree						agree

1. Acting as an individual is more appealing to me than acting as a member of a group.

2. I would rather be known for who I am as a member than as a member of an organization to which I belong.

3. I often do "my own thing".

4. I enjoy being unique and different from others in many ways.

5. I'd rather depend on myself than others

6. My personal identity, independent of others, is very important to me.

7. It is important to maintain harmony within my group.

8. I will sacrifice my self-interest for the benefit of the group I am in.

9. It is important to me to respect decisions made by the group.

10. I believe that group harmony is more important than personal than my personal interests.

11. To me, the interests of the group are generally more important than my personal interests.

12. I believe that it is my duty and obligation to observe the norms set by the group to which I belong, even if personal costs outweigh personal benefits.

individualism vs. collectivism Scale

下列问题是关于你的个人看法。所有的回答将会是不具名的 ,请用以下度量表具实回答。

| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |

强烈反对　　　　　　　　　　中立　　　　　　　　　　非常赞同

1. 我认为维持集体内部和谐是很重要的。

2. 我经常做自己喜欢的事而不在乎别人的看法。

3. 大体来说，集体利益通常比个人利益更重要。

4. 对于我来说，我更喜欢作为一个个体而非一个团体中的某一成员。

5. 对于我来说，我个人独立于他人的形象是很重要的。

6. 我更喜欢被认知为一个个体而非我所属团体中的一员。

7. 我认为集体的和谐比个人的私欲更重要。

8. 我喜欢在各个方面与众不同。

9. 为了集体利益，我会牺牲个人利益。

10. 对于我来说，尊重集体所做的决定很重要。

11. 我比较喜欢依靠自己而非依赖他人。

12. 即使我个人的所失大于所得,我也有责任和义务遵守我所在的集体

所制定的规范。

Please answer using the following scale:

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
strongly			neutral			strongly
disagree						agree

Identification Scale

1. I like Will Chang.
2. I can easily relate to Will Chang.
3. I think Will Chang could be a good friend.
4. I have no doubt Will Chang and I would work well together.
5. Will Chang is a personal role model.

Source Credibility Scale

<u>Attractiveness</u>

Please tell us how you view Will Chang on the following items?

Attractive, Classy, Handsome, Sexy

<u>Trustworthiness</u>

As an endorser for E-Generation, did you find Will Chang to be:

Dependable, Honest, Reliable, Sincerely, Trustworthy?

<u>Expertise</u>

As an endorser for E-Generation, how did you find Will Chang to be?

Not an expert 1-7 An Expert; Not experienced 1-7 experienced; Not knowledgeable 1-7

Knowledgeable; Not qualified 1-7 Qualified; Not skilled 1-7 Skilled

如果张希正式成为了 E-Generation 的产品代言人，请你就以下问题依个具实回答。所

有的回答将会是不具名的，请用以下度量表依个回答。

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
强烈反对			中立			非常赞同

1. 我会喜欢张希。

2. 我将很容易找到我和张希的共同点。

3. 我会把张希当作好朋友。

4. 如果我有机会和张希一起工作的话，肯定将会合作的很好。

5. 张希将会是我的偶像。

6. 张希看起来是有魅力的。

7. 张希看起来是有层次的。

8. 张希看起来是帅气的。

9. 张希看起来是性感的。

10. 张希看起来是可依靠，值得信赖的。

11. 张希看起来挺诚实的。

12. 张希看起来挺可靠（关于行事）的。

13. 张希看起来做事是认真的。

14. 张希看起来是可信的（关于人品）。

15. 张希看起来是不专业的(1) --- 很专业的(7)

16. 张希看起来是无经验的(1) --- 有经验的(7)

17. 张希看起来是无知识的(1) --- 有知识的(7)

18. 张希看起来是无资质的(1) --- 有资质的(7)

19. 张希看起来是无技能的(1) --- 有技能的(7)

Purchase Intention Scale

If Will Chang becomes an E-Generation product endorser, how likely would you be to buy E-Generation products?

Please answer using the following scale:

1	2	3	4	5	6
definitely not buy	probably not buy	might not buy	might buy	probably buy	definitely buy

If Will Chang becomes an E-Generation product endorser, how likely would you inquire about E-Generation products?

Please answer using the following scale:

1	2	3	4	5	6
definitely not inquire	probably not inquire	might not inquire	might inquire	probably inquire	definitely inquire

If Will Chang becomes an E-Generation product endorser, how likely would you consider about E-Generation products?

Please answer using the following scale:

1	2	3	4	5	6
definitely not consider	probably not consider	might not consider	might consider	probably consider	definitely consider

Purchase Intention Scale

如果张希正式成为了 E-Generation 的产品代言人，请你就以下问题依个具实回答。所

有的回答将会是不具名的，请用以下度量表依个回答

1	2	3	4	5	6
肯定不会	很可能不会	大概不会	大概会	很可能会	肯定会

你会购买张希代言的 E-Generation 产品吗？

1	2	3	4	5	6
肯定不会	很可能不会	大概不会	大概会	很可能会	肯定会

你会询问或打听张希代言的 E-Generation 产品吗？

1	2	3	4	5	6
肯定不会	很可能不会	大概不会	大概会	很可能会	肯定会

你会考虑购买张希代言的 E-Generation 产品吗？

Demographic Information

1. Please tell me your age? _____

2. What is your gender?   Male   Female

3. What is the highest level of education you have completed?

   a) Less than high school

   b) High school

   c) Diploma

   d) Bachelors

   e) Graduate degree

   f) Other, please specify _____

4. What is your ethnic background?

   a) Caucasian

   b) Asian

   c)   African-American

   d)   Hispanic

   e)   Middle Easterner

   f)   Others, please specify _____

个人信息

下列问题的所有回答将会是不具名的，请具实回答。

1. 您的年龄？ _____岁

2. 您的性别？_____1（男）_____2（女）

3. 您完成的最高学历是？

 _____1 高中或高中以下；_____2 大专；_____3 大学；

 _____4 研究生；_____5 其他， 请详细说明

4. 您的文化背景？

 1) _____（欧洲）

 2) _____（亚洲）

 3) _____（非洲）

 4) _____（拉丁美洲）

 5) _____（中东）

 6) _____（其他）

APPENDIX K

Consent Form (Main Study)

Dear Participant,

You have been invited to participate in a cross-cultural study on celebrity athlete endorsements. The study will require about 15 minutes of your time.   It is not likely that there will be any harm or discomfort associated with the questionnaire. Your participation may benefit society by helping business people to better understand celebrity athlete endorsement in a cross-cultural context. Moreover, your name will be entered into a draw for a $50 dollar local store gift card.

Your participation will be completely anonymous and the researcher will not be able to access to any of your identification information. The response you provide in the survey will never be linked to your identity or your personal information. Only the primary researcher will have access to this anonymous data.

Your participation in this study is completely voluntary. You are free to withdraw from the study at anytime without consequences.   The results from this study will be presented as part of a Master's thesis. In addition, the results may be presented in journals read by academic scholars and by marketing professionals.   The results may also be presented to groups of academic scholars or professional business people.

If you wish to receive a copy of the results from this study, you may contact the researcher (email: murphy.wang@uleth.ca, phone: 403-330-1551).

This study has been reviewed and approved by the Faculty of Management Research and Ethics Committee at the University of Lethbridge. If you have any concerns or questions regarding your rights as a participant or about the way the study are conducted, you may contact the Office of Research Services at the University of Lethbridge at 403-329-2747.

By clicking "SUBMIT" button you acknowledge that you have read and understand this disclosure and agree to participate in this research study.

Murphy Wang
Masters of Science Candidate

Supervisors:
Dr. Tanya Drollinger   email: tanya.drollinger@uleth.ca   phone: 403-329-2174
Dr. Wenlong Yuan   email: wenlong.yuan@uleth.ca   phone: 403-380-1845